

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY Illustrated REVIEW OF REVIEWS



March
1900

Edited by ALBERT SHAW

American Policy and the Isthmian Canal.

1. The Editor's Comments on the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.
2. The Full Text of the Hay-Pauncefote and Clayton-Bulwer Treaties.

Should We Subsidize Steamship Lines?

Articles by President Hadley, of Yale, and Winthrop L. Marvin, of Boston.

The Kentucky Mountaineers.

1. A Study of the Mountain People. By William G. Frost.
2. The Recent Paroxysmal Politics in Kentucky, in the Editorial Pages.

John Ruskin: Poet, Painter, and Prophet.

A Thoroughly Illustrated Character Sketch by Lucking Tavenor.

The South African Struggle.

1. Editorial Comment on the Military Situation and Public Sentiment.
2. Opinions of Notable Foreign Military Experts in the "Leading Articles of the Month."

The Craig Colony for Epileptics.

By Sydney Brooks.

The Profits of a Maryland Peach Farm.

By W. B. Stottlemeyer.

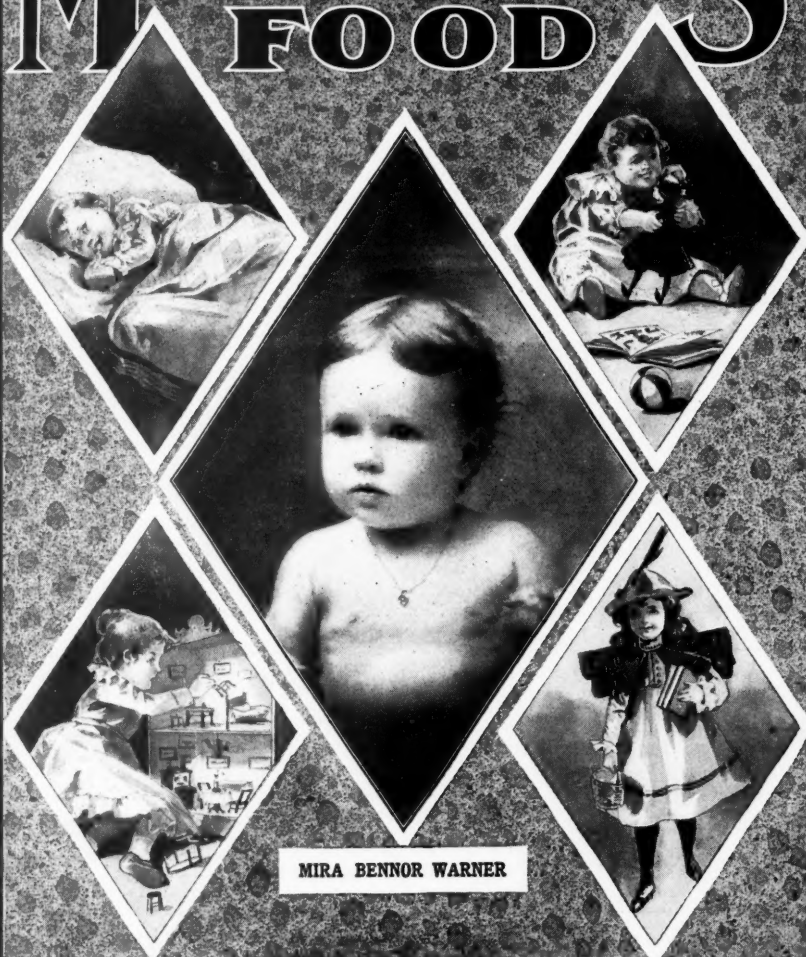
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MELLIN'S FOOD



MIRA BENNOR WARNER

From one of "Our Loving Friends:"

I enclose you a picture of my baby, and you can see what a plump child she is. I tried different foods and sterilized milk, and nothing agreed with her but Mellin's Food. Baby is over a year old and has never been sick even when cutting her eight teeth. I feel so grateful for having the food to use that I wanted to send you one of baby's pictures. I always call her a Mellin's Food baby and highly recommend it to every one.

MRS. CHAS. A. WARNER, Putnam Conn.

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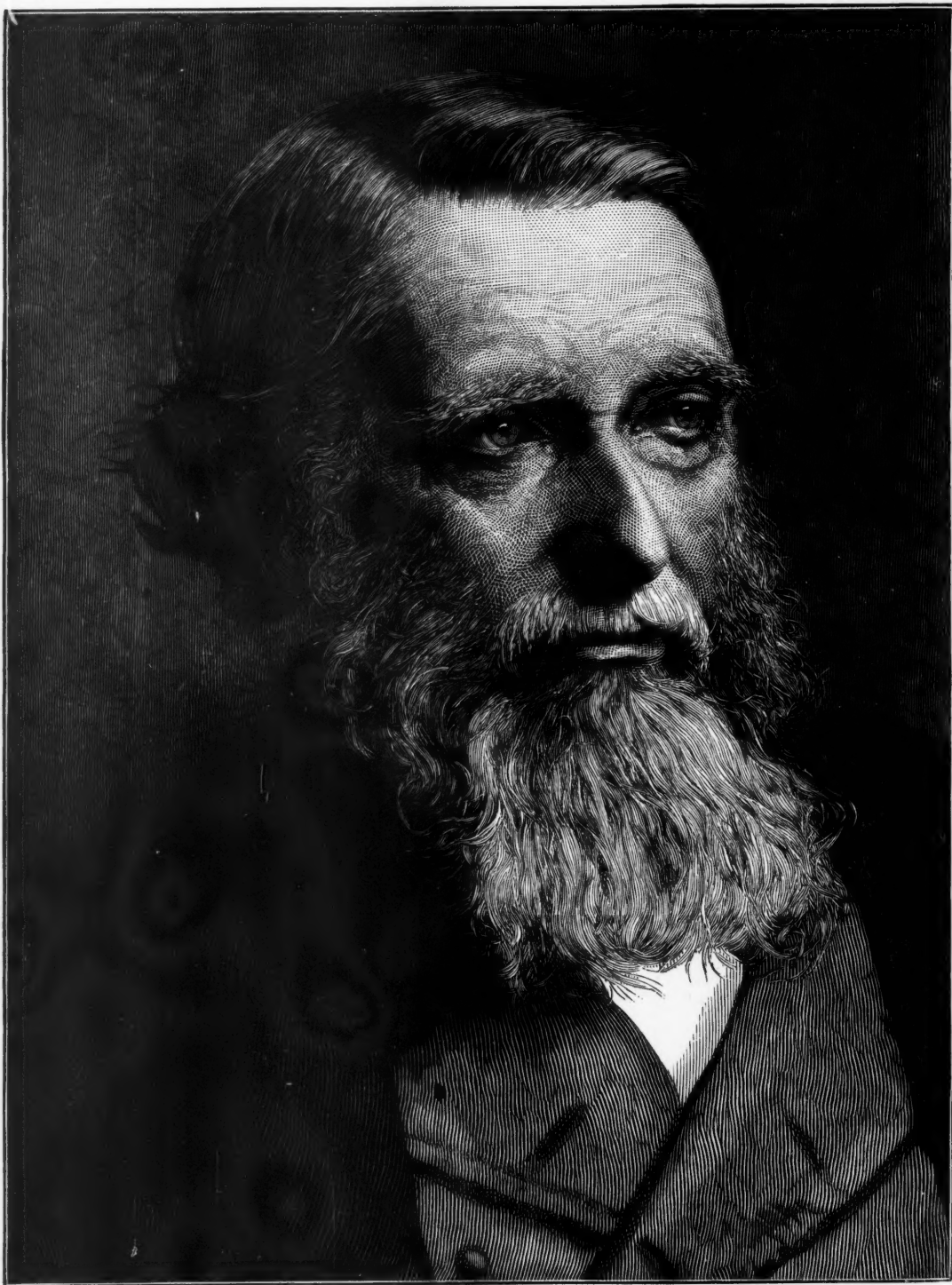
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THE LATE JOHN RUSKIN, M.A., LL.D.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXI.

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No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The South
African
Spectacle.*

The amazement of the world at the war situation in South Africa became greater rather than less as the weeks went by and four months had elapsed since the war began on October 12. General Buller had started for the front with comforting assurances to the British public that he and his legions would eat their Christmas dinners at Pretoria. The War Office and all the military experts in England, in so far as they had the public ear, confirmed this prediction. The Queen herself was promised by her ministers that the war would be of quick duration—a sort of holiday march—and her freedom from misgivings was shown by the jaunty fashion in which she sent out the many thousands of specially stamped

cakes of chocolate to be served with her compliments to all the men when they ate those Pretorian Christmas dinners. Plum puddings in vast quantity likewise were dispatched from England; and the young men of the aristocracy, who called the war “excellent pig-sticking,” conceived it all as a rather jolly adventure. Never perhaps had any serious enterprise been undertaken by a modern government with so little notion of the immense difficulties that were to be faced. From one extreme English sentiment went to the other. The jingoes who wanted war with the Transvaal, and who had been showing for a year or two how easily they could teach the Boers their lesson, began at length to devote their military talents to the explanation of the great advantages possessed by the enemy, and the almost insuperable obstacles that must be overcome inch by inch with vast armaments before Pretoria could be reached. One thing at least the English military writers have demonstrated to the satisfaction of all the rest of the world, and that is that they have only a guessing knowledge of the matters they discuss. It has been made clear again and again that the English do not even know the country in which they have been fighting.



A TYPICAL BOER SOLDIER.

*Where Ignorance is Not
Bliss, but
Folly.*

This is the more astonishing because the war thus far has been mainly upon their own ground. Natal has belonged to the British for a generation, and yet, it appears, they have never made an accurate survey of it. In anticipation of trouble with the Boers they had created a great depot of military supplies at the town of Ladysmith, and yet they were unable to provide their generals with accurate maps of the immediate vicinity. From one direction and another those generals repeatedly tried to approach Ladysmith, with a grotesquely imperfect notion of the places where streams could be forded, and no precise information accumulated in advance regarding the relative importance for military purposes of various

ranges and detached hills. These generals sent back reports from time to time concerning the great numerical strength of their intrenched opponents. But the real fact is that they knew nothing, except by rumor, as to the numbers of the Boers, who almost invariably fight from positions where they are absolutely concealed. They use smokeless powder, can kill at a mile, and seldom offer themselves as targets.

From information that did not come by way of the English censors or the British War Office, we are led to the conclusion that in some at least of the engagements one Boer has been matched against ten Englishmen. It will be remembered that even with the weapons of those ancient times the 300 Spartans in the pass of Thermopylæ were almost enough for the invading hosts of Persia. If those Spartans had possessed a piece or two of Krupp or Creusot artillery, a few Maxim or Nordenfeldt machine guns, and a couple of hundred Mauser rifles, with the skill to use their weapons and a supply of ammunition, they could have held the pass of Thermopylæ indefinitely against all the men in the Persian empire. Now, it happens that the Boers are natural marksmen. In that regard they are like our own frontiersmen of a generation ago. But besides being individually proficient in the use of arms, the Boers are also supplied abundantly with weapons of the latest and best patterns. They took warning at the time of the Jameson raid, some five years ago, and began to provide and expend a large war fund. It was easy to get the money because of the immense prosperity of the gold mines that the Uitlanders held in the Johannesburg district. Taxation was so arranged that a good proportion of the profits of the gold-mining went into the Transvaal treasury, and the greater part of the



THE DEPARTURE OF "LONG TOM" FROM PRETORIA.

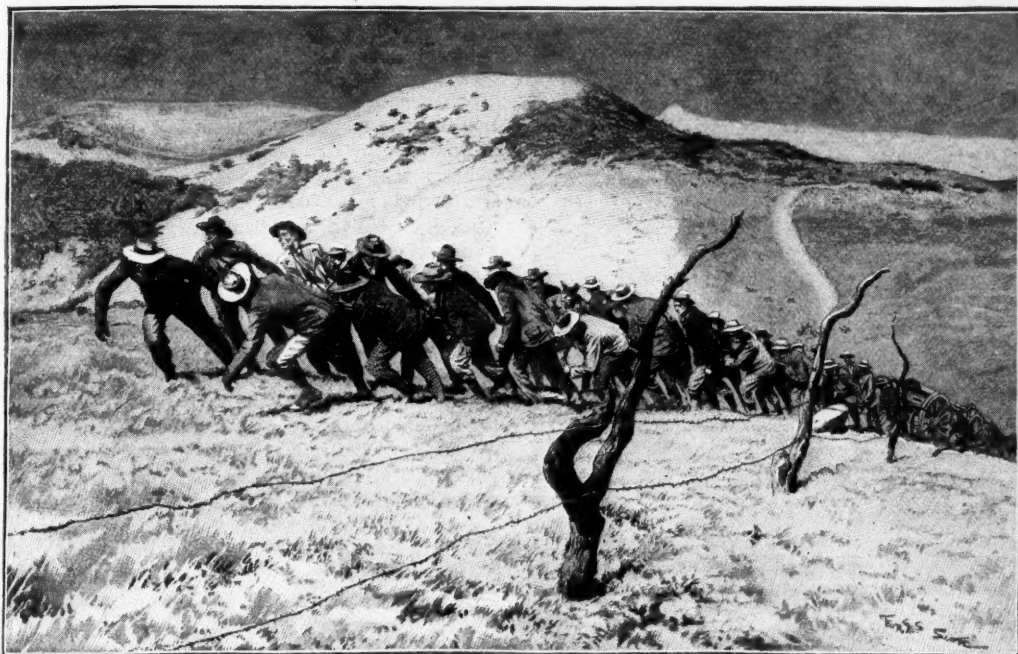
public revenue thus received was secretly spent in preparation for war. This might be regarded as an anticipatory war indemnity. It had a rather fine touch of irony about it, certainly. The "Statesman's Year Book," upon which Englishmen rely—and the editors of which usually are at least as well informed as the British Government—in its edition for last year stated that this South African Republic of Mr. Krüger's had no standing army, with the exception of a small force of horse artillery of 32 officers, 79 non-commissioned officers, and 289 men. Apart from a few artillerists at Bloemfontein, the Orange Free State also, on its part, had no standing army. Yet now the allied republics seem to have a veteran soldier behind every rock in South Africa, not to mention the thousands who are fighting snugly behind skillfully constructed trenches. Some of them told an Australian journalist last month that they had 120,000 men under arms. This staggers belief, of course. Nevertheless they are numerous enough to man a great many of the Thermopylæ that nature has so generously provided.



"LONG TOM" IN POSITION AT VOLKSRUST.

(To illustrate the Boer method of protecting big guns in the field.)

The situation is so astonishing that one can only wonder what will happen next, and no one possessed of common sense cares to hazard predictions. Thus far the war has been in some respects like that between the Cubans and the Spaniards. Generals Gomez and Maceo did not run the risk of open battle, but with their superior knowledge of the country and possession of the interior hills they

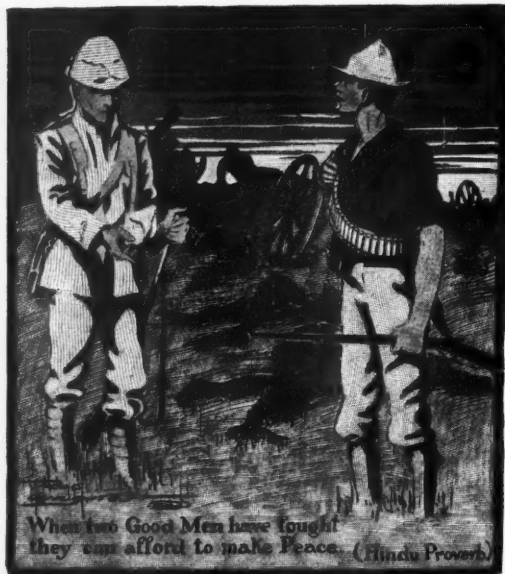


BOER SOLDIERS DRAGGING ONE OF THEIR FAMOUS GUNS TO THE TOP OF A HILL.

maintained their resistance until the Spaniards had accumulated a force of something like 200,000 soldiers, transported across an ocean, with the attendant burdens of maintenance and the ravages of disease to face. Thus the situation in Cuba became completely deadlocked. The Spaniards could not conquer the insurgents, and the insurgents, on their part, could not drive out the Spaniards. The intervention of the United States was a mercy to both contending parties and, if possible, a greater kindness to Spain than to Cuba. Thus far in the South African War there seems to have been very little open fighting. The Boers have been able to hold the English fairly in check, but have not been able to carry out their original intention of sweeping down to the principal parts of Natal and Cape Colony. The English have been steadily transporting men and supplies, while the Boers, having for the most part chosen their positions and taken the defensive, have been able to make effective use of their comparatively small male population. Some fairly disinterested intervention would extricate Briton and Boer alike from a bad situation.

*A Losing War
for
Both Sides.* The war is a hideous mistake for both belligerents. The English were wrong in provoking it and the Boers were wrong in precipitating it. No Englishman has ventured to suggest any possible outcome of the

war that would be valuable enough to justify the loss of British blood that has already occurred. The Boers indeed might well say that from their point of view the war was worth while if it should have resulted in the expulsion of the British from South Africa and the creation of a federated republic under Boer predominance; but this is an outcome of which there has never been more than the ghost of a chance. All wars are regrettable enough in their incidents, but some are relatively good, viewed in the light of their results, if they are afterward seen to have served the higher ends of justice or to have brought some great and positive good to one combatant or to the other. But this war in South Africa does not promise to serve the higher ends of justice even in the smallest degree; nor does it appear likely that it can bring any great or positive good to either combatant, no matter which side may win in the end. It has, of course, always been our opinion, as our readers are aware, that the British, by virtue of their immeasurably superior resources, would carry the day, but they will have to treat with due respect a foe that has shown such power of resistance; and it is not certain by any means that, even as the result of a successful war, the British can now gain anything like as full a control over the destinies of South Africa as would in any case have been theirs in the natural order of things within five

A HINT FOR SOUTH AFRICA.—From the *Criterion* (New York).

or ten years at the furthest if they had simply let things alone.

American Opinion on the War. The English press continues to show great interest in the nature of American sentiment and opinion regarding the war in South Africa. It may be safely said that the feeling of the American people is far more friendly toward the English people, whom they know, than toward the Boer people, who are strangers in the full sense. But at the same time American feeling is far more favorable toward the Boer cause than toward the English cause in this particular war. There is nothing paradoxical about this state of mind. The people of the United States have always been in sympathy with English Liberals rather than with English Tories. When the leading Liberals are candid enough, in the face of the war excitement, to say plainly that England is waging an unjust and improper war, with an unanswerable array of facts and arguments, it is not strange that Americans, who are outside the influence of the war excitement, and able, therefore, to look at the situation soberly, should adopt as their own the opinion of men like Morley, Bryce, and Harcourt. There is indeed much racial fellow-feeling between England and the United States; but it must not be supposed that the family feeling is strong enough to blind us to the merits of a controversy. At least it is quite too much to suppose that such sympathy, growing out of kinship and

the possession of a common language and literature, would assert itself actively except upon occasions of magnitude. If England were in desperate warfare with a coalition of the great European powers, the English blood of America would be aroused quite irrespective of the nature of the quarrel that had led to the war—just as the German blood of America was excited to the utmost on behalf of Germany during the Franco-Prussian contest.

Americans Swear by Bryce. Intelligent Americans, as a rule, had several years ago made up their minds that the rapid development of the richest gold fields in the world must lead to the extension of English supremacy and sovereignty throughout South Africa. But they saw no reason why the situation should be forced, and could not approve of the nagging and bluffing diplomacy which precipitated the war. It is probable that Mr. James Bryce's book, "Impressions of South Africa," has had more readers in the United States than in England. Mr. Bryce's great work upon our own institutions was so able, complete, and impartial that Americans look upon him as a trained observer of the very highest qualifications, with the habit of precision and accuracy, both in matters of history and of current controversy. On the other hand, Americans do not in the least regard Mr. Chamberlain as an impartial exponent of the South African question; while Mr. Balfour's perfunctory apologies only serve to show the moral weakness of the present British Government. Mr. Bryce, by virtue of the views he holds, certainly does not make himself an enemy of the English people; on the contrary, he shows his British loyalty in the truest and highest sense, by his desire that his own country should do what is right and wise. It is only by considering the position of their own fellow-citizens who entertain Mr. Bryce's views that the British public in general can properly appreciate the point of view of the people of the United States.

Opposition Sentiment in England. When our war broke out with Spain both houses of Congress, regardless of party distinctions, supported President McKinley without the defection of a single Senator or Representative. Public opinion throughout the country, in like manner, was united in support of the policy of the Government. But England conducts this South African War in the face of the outspoken condemnation of the most sincere and thoughtful portion of her people. Lord Rosebery, the Liberal leader in the House of Lords, has never in all his public career been so powerful in speech and so scathing

withal as in his replies to Lord Salisbury's pitiable excuses and palliations in explanation of the predicament in which he has allowed Mr. Chamberlain to plunge the country.

*In
Commons
and Press.*

It is true that in the House of Commons the majority of the Liberals, under the lead of Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, have taken the ground that they will not obstruct the Tory government in the work of prosecuting the war. But almost the entire Irish contingent and a portion of the English Radicals in the House have been making incessant attacks upon the ministry. In these debates the government leaders have not appeared to good advantage. The only man on that side of the House who has improved his reputation is Mr. George Wyndham, who speaks on behalf of the War Department, to which he is attached as parliamentary under secretary. The London press, while in general supporting the war and opposing the Boers with unrestrained malignity, has been extremely severe in its criticisms of the ministry for its lack of military foresight and its general inefficiency in the conduct of the war. Several of the ablest and most prominent journalists in London have resigned their positions because conscientiously opposed to a war that their employers were determined to support.

*The "Stop-
the-War"
Movement.*

One of these, Mr. W. M. Crook, who was editor of the *Echo*, is now secretary of a national committee that is demanding that the war be stopped. The chairman of this movement is the Rev. Dr. Clifford. The general committee has issued the following remarkable appeal, which has been sown broadcast throughout England in the form of leaflets, handbills, and posters:

TO OUR FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN:

We Appeal to You to Stop the War.

It is an unjust war which ought never to have been provoked.

It is a war in which we have nothing to gain, everything to lose.

To "put it through" merely because we are in it is to add crime to crime.

And All for What?

Why are our sons and brothers killing and being killed in South Africa?

Why are happy homes made desolate, wives widowed, and children left fatherless?

Let Us Face the Facts!

There would have been no war if we had consented to arbitration, which President Krüger begged for, but which we haughtily refused.

There would have been no war if the government had counted the cost.

There would have been no war if the capitalists at

the gold fields had not hoped it would reduce wages and increase dividends.

There would have been no war but for the campaign of lies undertaken to make men mad against the Boers.

And Who Are the Boers?

The Boers are the Dutch of South Africa, white men, and Protestant Christians like ourselves.

They read the same Bible, keep the same Sabbath, and pray to the same God as ourselves.

They believe that they are fighting for freedom and fatherland, with the unanimous support of Europe except Turkey.

What Are We Fighting For?

We have been at war for three months, thousands have been killed and wounded, but to this day neither side knows what the other is fighting for. Each side asserts that the other is fighting for something which the other denies that it wants.

Why Not Call a Truce?

We might then get to know for the first time what is the real difference between us.

And when we had in black and white what each side wants, we should then be able to see what could be done to arrange matters.

If we could not agree on a settlement, then we ought to refer the difference to arbitration.

If We "Put It Through" What Does It Mean?

The sacrifice of the lives of 20,000 of our brave sons. The slaughter of at least as many brave Boers.

Hard times for the poor at home.

Dislocation of trade.

The increase of taxation.

The waste of £100,000,000 of our hard-earned money.

And in the end

CONSCRIPTION!

Is the Game Worth the Candle?

If we wade through blood to hoist the Union Jack at Pretoria our difficulties will then only have begun.

We shall have conquered a people we cannot govern.

If we try to govern them against their will we shall have to keep 50,000 soldiers in their country.

We Do Not Want Another Ireland in South Africa.

Therefore we appeal to you to

STOP THE WAR AND STOP IT NOW!

Signed on behalf of the "Stop-the-War Committee."

JOHN CLIFFORD, D.D., Chairman of General Committee.

SILAS K. HOCKING, Chairman of Executive.
W. M. CROOK, Hon. Sec.

*The American
Versus
the Irish
Attitude.*

Thus the American private citizen finds his own view confirmed by an ample English opinion. Our Government, on the other hand, has no right to an opinion, and it has had only to maintain a scrupulous neutrality. Good relations with the British Government are desirable for the United States, and there is nothing in the causes or conditions of the South African War that should in the least diminish the excellent diplomatic relations that now exist between Washington

and London. Even those Americans who are strongest in their denunciations of the war and most earnest in their expression of sympathy for the Boers do not, so far as we are aware, desire any lessening of the friendliness and goodwill which mark all our official relations with England and the British empire. This observation, of course, is not intended to apply to certain extreme manifestations in which Irishmen are chiefly prominent. Genuine Americans have no sympathy at all with the vindictive clamor of those whose professed friendliness for the Boers is only a new way to express their old hatred of England. Those who are frankest in these expressions, like Miss Maud Gonne, who has come to this country from Ireland to participate in the pro-Boer agitation, do not hesitate to say that it is their policy to assail England whenever the chance offers, regardless of the right or wrong of England's position. They hold that "England's difficulty is Ireland's opportunity."

*Nationalists
and
Fenians.*

This position has also been taken by the shattered fragments of the Nationalist party in Ireland, and the factions have patched up at least a temporary truce under the leadership of Mr. John Redmond, in order the more effectively to nag England in Parliament while the war trouble lasts. This, it need not be said, is wholly foreign to the spirit of the English Liberals, whose attitude toward the war proceeds from love of their country and solicitude that its true principles should prevail

in the carrying on of its vast empire. The behavior of the Irishmen looks dangerously like disloyalty. Some day soon the newspapers will perhaps create a passing sensation by disclosures concerning the undoubted efforts of the extreme Irish wing to precipitate at this time an invasion of Canada. We do not believe, of course, that such an attempt will actually be made; while, on the other hand, we do not in the least doubt the rumors that it has been plotted. Our Canadian friends, if they choose, may send all their fighting men to South Africa in perfect assurance that the United States can and will restrain its own Fenians. With Irishmen fighting the battles of the British empire in South Africa, as they have fought British battles everywhere else for a century past, English opinion can afford to be indulgent toward the whimsicalities of the Fenians, and also to be far more generous toward the real grievances of Ireland than it has been in the past.

*Where the
Empire
Is Strong.*

As against the gloomier aspects of this South African War, our English friends see standing out in bright relief the splendid spirit of loyalty and helpfulness that Canada and Australia have manifested ever since the trouble began. Looking beyond all the specific and immediate phases of the South African contention, England's best argument in defense of her general good intentions could be expressed in the two words—Canada and Australia. Surely the best modern ideals of liberty and justice are as nearly realized in Canada and Australia as in any other large areas of this planet. Each is essentially a self-governing confederated republic, the union of the Australian colonies having now been virtually completed. About a third of the population of Canada is French, and the province of Quebec contains the largest body of French people outside of Europe. They live in freedom and happiness under the British flag, and one of their number is now head of the Liberal party of Canada and prime minister. In the British colony at the Cape, which has its own parliamentary government, the Dutch are more numerous than the English, and a Dutch premier, Mr. Schreiner, is now at the head of the government. A confederation of the states and provinces of South Africa would give the Dutch burghers all the liberty that the French have in Canada, and would seem to be in every way a desirable destiny. In other words, the best argument or justification that the British imperialists can advance for the empire is the empire itself. They may point with pride to the results and rest their case. No defense of the



MISS MAUDE GONNE.

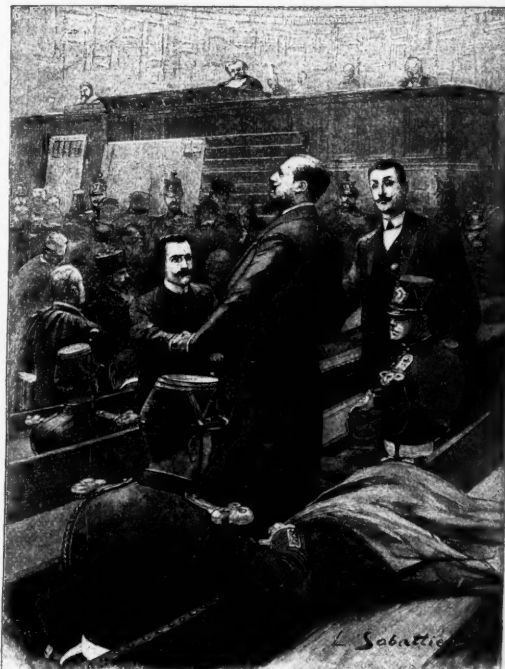
British empire as it is in Queen Victoria's time can be half so eloquent as the obvious facts.

*Continental
Points
of View.*

These elements of inherent strength and moral superiority are well understood in France and Germany. When continental statesmen and publicists feel that they can afford to express their sincere convictions, they are unstinted in their praise of the vast political fabric that the English have built up on the cardinal principles of freedom and justice. They would be glad to put in their whole time admiring so noble a spectacle, but it happens that they are engaged in building empires of their own, and on that account cannot afford to be as pro-British as they would otherwise prefer. The continental populations, however—apart from the governments and the exceptionally well-informed individuals—are intensely hostile to the English and sympathetic toward the Boers. But this feeling does them no very great credit, inasmuch as it is not based upon lofty convictions as to the justice of the Boer cause, but rather upon a very unamiable jealousy and prejudice directed against the energetic people who speak English. And we must remember that this strong feeling against England on the continent of Europe just now is really part and parcel of the sentiment that was particularly directed against the United States of America less than two years ago. It is as different as it can possibly be from the thoughtful American judgment that our English friends and cousins have no sufficient reasons for exposing their own sons and brothers to death in the heart of Africa, nor yet any due cause to be shedding the blood of the old men and young boys who form the bulk of the Boer army.

*Chances of a
War Between
France and
England.* The French Government, following the decision of Germany, has decided upon a very large programme of naval enlargement. France is relieved to have gotten through with the long treason trial, before the Senate as a High Court, of the monarchist leaders in the conspiracy that was exposed some months ago. Paul Déroulède and André Buffet were sentenced each to ten years of banishment, and Jules Guérin to ten years of imprisonment. French popular feeling is now intensely anti-English, and so, for that matter, is German feeling. It is reported that unofficial Germany has become so embittered against England as to be comparatively friendly toward France. There are a great number of unsettled questions between France and England. The principal one of these is the English occupation of Egypt, to which the French have never consented, with the virtual English control of the Suez Canal,

which Frenchmen constructed, and the recent English conquest of the Soudan, including Fashoda, which almost precipitated war not so long ago. Then there is the Newfoundland question, the Morocco question, the Madagascar question, the Siam question, and several others. It is not to be supposed that the French would in the least desire to plunge deliberately into war with anybody; but it will be only natural for them to try to use the present opportunity to gain points here and there at England's expense. England has always been gaining points at the expense of other nations when they had their hands full of trouble, and why should the French scruple to raise the Egyptian question at the very moment when England has had to take Kitchener and most of her troops away from Egypt and the Soudan to use them in South Africa? Much depends, of course, upon the duration of the war with the Boers. With General Roberts fairly in the field last month, nearly 200,000 brave troops being actually on the ground under his sole command, the tide seems to have turned. And if the relief of Kimberley should be followed by a regular series of rapid British successes, there would be much less danger of European complications; for prestige counts heavily.



DÉROULÈDE, BUFFET, AND GUÉRIN SHAKING HANDS ON THE OCCASION OF THEIR CONDEMNATION BY THE FRENCH SENATE.—From *L'Illustration* (Paris).

*Russia's
Hay-Making
Schemes.*

It is not, then, that France or Russia wishes to fight England or anybody else. But they, like England, have definite imperial projects on foot, and they intend to make the most of the present opportunity. Russia is said to have moved considerable bodies of troops to the Afghanistan frontier, and has also induced the Shah of Persia to accept a large loan, in return for which Russia will expect to control the revenue system of the country. The fact seems to be that Russia's long-cherished plan of absorbing Persia is on the eve of accomplishment. A Russian railroad is to be built to the Persian Gulf in the very early future. Afghanistan, also, as a buffer state between the Queen's empire of India and the central Asian dominions of the Czar, is destined to disappear and become a Russian province.

*Will Japan
Fight Russia?*

There is no particular danger of a war between Russia and England, but close observers are of the opinion that Japan and Russia may come to blows at almost any moment. Reports have emanated from Russia to the effect that a good understanding has been reached with the Japanese, but these reports must be received with some skepticism. For several years the Japanese have regarded a war with Russia as inevitable, and they prefer to have it before the Trans-Siberian Railway is finished and while Japan's naval strength is decidedly superior to that of Russia in the Pacific. The Japanese consider themselves rightly entitled to Port Arthur and they aspire to dominate Korea. Their influence is now very great at Peking. They have known how to play upon the reactionary and anti-European sentiments of the Dowager Empress of China, and it is supposed that they are largely responsible for that lady's recent policy. It is expected that Japanese officers will reorganize the Chinese army on a modern footing, and that a firm alliance will be established between these two kindred empires. That it will be the policy of this alliance to cultivate the friendship of England and the United States, while opposing the Asiatic encroachments of Russia, can readily be believed. In short, a movement by Japan against Russia at this time, when the

Muscovites want quiet in that quarter in order to make bold gains elsewhere, would be thought to point directly to a close understanding between England and Japan, if not an actual alliance.

*Buller's
Work Up to
the Middle of
February.*

We shall not attempt a minute recapitulation of the military movements in South Africa during the month that comes under our present review. Four weeks ago we went to press at the time when General Buller was making his second unsuccessful attempt to establish his forces on the north side of the Tugela River and thus to relieve Ladysmith. This involved the Spion Kop incident. General Warren had on January 23 bravely captured this craggy eminence, which was apparently of great military value, but which proved too steep for the ascent of artillery, and also had no supply of water for his troops. Furthermore, it was a position commanded by Boer artillery on other heights. This second attempt to get to Ladysmith, by outflanking the Boers on the west, proved a flat failure. The losses in the Spion Kop operations were 271 killed, 1,066 wounded, and 293 missing. For a week or more after the Spion Kop disaster General Buller's large army lay apparently inactive in its entrenched camp at Chieveley; but in point of fact Sir Redvers was preparing to make a third attempt, which was begun on February 5. His forces crossed the Tugela at Potgieter's Drift and at Schiet Drift, and took possession of the Vaalkrantz ridge, on the direct road to Ladysmith. The British were again forced back across the Tugela, their losses having been 24 killed, 382 wounded, and 5 missing.



MAP TO SHOW REGION OF RUSSIA'S LATEST ADVANCES.

*The Relief
of Kimberley.*

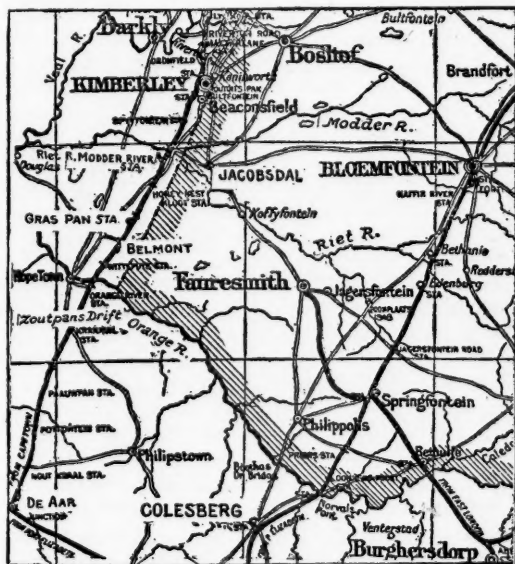
Meanwhile Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener had left Cape Town for the front early in February, but their exact destination was not known at first. It soon developed, however, that they had proceeded to the British headquarters south of the Modder River. From this point a movement for the invasion of the Orange Free State, under the direction of Lord Roberts, began on February 11. An expedition under General Macdonald to Koodoesberg, fifteen miles to the westward, had been made, to divert the attention of the Boers in that direction. On the 12th a force of cavalry under the command of General French, who had come from the south to join Methuen's forces, made a dash across the Riet River at the Dekiel and Waterval Drifts, fifteen miles east of the Modder River camp. On the following day General French forced a passage of the Modder River at the Klip and Rondeval Drifts, and on the evening of the 15th entered Kimberley. Jacobsdal, an important base of supplies for the Boers southeast of Kimberley, was also occupied by Lord Roberts on the 15th. The Boers had not offered much resistance against these advances, and General Cronje's army was reported to be in full retreat, a part of it being headed, apparently, for Bloemfontein, and a part of it falling back to the northwest of Kimberley, toward Barkly. General Methuen had been left at Magersfontein, and General Kelly-Kenny's division was left in control of the drifts on the Modder River east of Kimberley.

*The Turn
of the
Tide.*

With the relief of Kimberley English despondency gave place to the wildest enthusiasm, and the praises of Lords Roberts and Kitchener were sung in extravagant pæans. When the time comes in England for sober judgment, however, it will be remembered that, in the first place, Roberts and Kitchener had a great many more troops than were at the command of General Buller, and, in the second place, that they were allowed to begin a campaign on military lines, whereas Buller had been obliged to give up his own military plans in order to accommodate the political exigencies that Sir Alfred Milner, the British commissioner in South Africa, and the ministry in England regarded as imperative. Proper military strategy would have paid no attention at all to Ladysmith and would not have split up the British forces, but would have marched in solid mass straight for the centers of the two allied republics. Relieving Kimberley is, from the military point of view, a mere incident. It proves nothing at all about the future of the war. It was supposed, as we closed this number for the press, that Lord Roberts was pushing for Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State. But to occupy Bloemfontein would, from the military point of view, signify nothing of special importance. It may be useful to our readers to remember, for example, that the British captured Washington and burned the capitol building in the War of 1812. That disagreeable incident, however, did not cost the American republic its independence. Prophecies about the duration of this war are worthless. It is enough to say that careful and well-informed military critics are of the opinion that the Boers can hold out for a long time on account of the nature of their ground, if they find it worth their while to do so. In our opinion both sides ought to have had more than enough by May 1 to make them ready to agree upon a truce.

*Other War
Notes.*

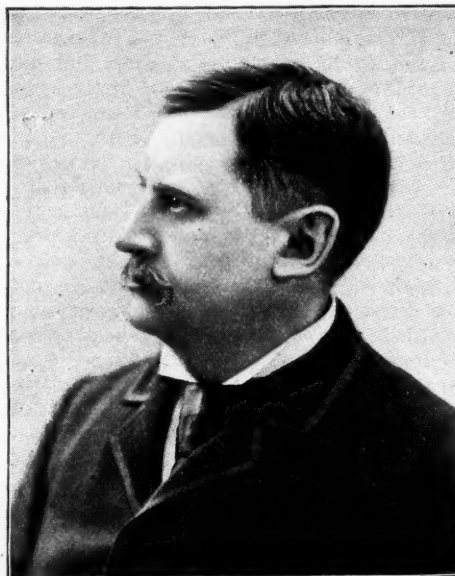
The war began on October 12 and has, therefore, been in progress over four months and a half. The investment of Kimberley by the Boers began on October 20, and the siege lasted 118 days. The siege of Ladysmith began on October 29. The British force under Colonel Plumer, which had been marching from Rhodesia for the relief of Mafeking, was checked by the Boers at Gabarones, 100 miles to the north of Mafeking. The total British losses from the beginning of the war up to February 12 were 1,628 killed, 5,941 wounded, and 2,674 missing. The Boer losses are not known, but on February 12 the British held 438 prisoners of war at Cape Town.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE LORD ROBERTS' ADVANCE.

Governor
Roosevelt and
His Adminis-
tration.

The question of a Republican candidate for Vice-President was widely discussed last month. Many of the party leaders had decided that Governor Roosevelt was the most available man, and it was understood that he was to be nominated at the Philadelphia convention, even against his own preferences. His successor as governor of New York is to be elected this fall, and it seemed fairly likely that he might have the chance to choose between running for a second term or taking a place on the national ticket with Mr. McKinley. In so far as the decision lay with him, Governor Roosevelt very frankly put himself on record last month. He announced that under no circumstances would he accept a nomination for the Vice-Presidency, and he also made it known that he would be a candidate for renomination as governor if the party so desired. This choice has the marked approbation of the Republicans of the State of New York; and it is now as probable that they will place Roosevelt by acclamation at the head of their State ticket this fall as that the Republican party of the country will by acclamation accord a renomination to President McKinley. Governor Roosevelt has made a record that Republicans and Democrats alike admire and respect. The Democrats are his opponents, but they are not his enemies. He has a few singularly bitter enemies in the so-called independent press, but the reiterated attacks upon him are too obviously malicious and false to do him any harm. He has set a high standard in making appointments, and has brought the ordinary administrative work of

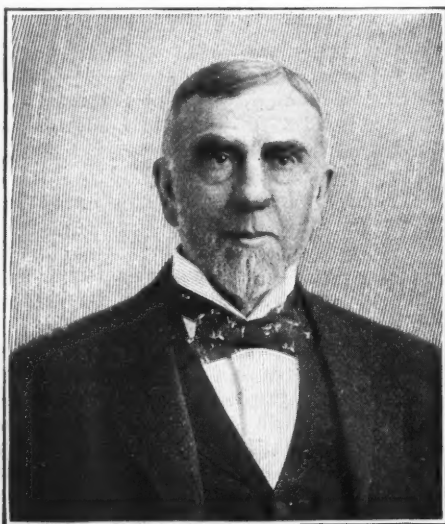


HON. FRANCIS B. HENDRICKS, OF NEW YORK.
(State superintendent of insurance.)

the State to a remarkable degree of efficiency. He uses none but open methods, never sacrificing principle to party; and he succeeds in carrying his party with him on points that he believes to be vital.

The Case
of
Payn.

A recent instance was afforded in the appointment of a State insurance commissioner. This office in the State of New York is one of vast discretion. Mr. Louis F. Payn, whose term was about to expire, is a politician of whose record and methods Governor Roosevelt does not approve. Mr. Payn desired reappointment, and—with great political influence at his command—took the defiant ground that he could prevent the confirmation of any successor the governor might choose, and could thus keep his office as a hold-over. It was declared that if the governor did not yield to Payn his own political future would be wrecked, the Republican party of New York shattered to pieces, Mr. Bryan elected President of the United States, and general chaos precipitated. But with the governor it was a point of principle; and without wrangling or fuss he simply stood firm in his determination not to appoint Payn, but to nominate as good a man as he could get for the post. The name of the Hon. Francis Hendricks, formerly collector of the port of New York under President Harrison's administration, proved the one to conjure with. The



MR. LOUIS F. PAYN.

angry clouds rolled away, and Mr. Hendricks was confirmed with a great deal more ease and harmony than would have been possible if Mr. Payn's name had been sent in.

*A Man Who
Can Both Act
and Think.*

Governor Roosevelt is putting all the force of his vigorous and healthy mind and his unflagging energy into the attempt to deal rightly with important public questions. The chief commercial bodies of New York City and State have indorsed the solution that the governor, through his expert commission, recommends for the State canal problem, although the expenditure of \$60,000,000 is involved. The difficult and delicate problems involved in a complete revision of the taxation system of the State are under consideration by the governor with the best possible assistance. And thus one might name various subjects of real importance to which the governor is giving his closest attention, while certain silly newspaper writers suppose him to be playing the game of personal politics, nursing his ambitions, and dreaming of future glory. Sufficient to him is the day. Far from being a rash man who takes snap judgment on matters that come before him, Governor Roosevelt is deliberate, judicial, and open to conviction. But fortunately he has the moral ability—the will-power—to make up his mind in due time; and having formed a judgment he has the courage to express it and act upon it. There is nothing Hamlet-like about the governor of the State of New York. Last month he went on record as believing that we ought to insist on the right of fortifying the Nicaragua Canal. In certain quarters it was said that this opinion was promulgated by the governor with some sort of political object, and that it had a



A PAGE FROM TEDDY ROOSEVELT'S CROMWELL.

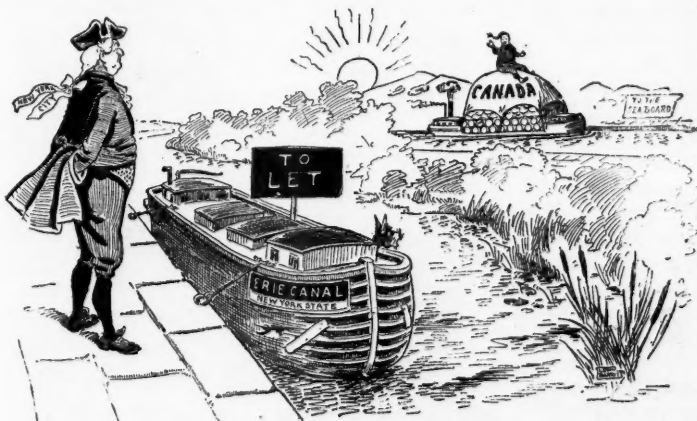
EXECUTIONER PLATT (to Teddy the Leveler): "I pray thee, remember 1904. Thine intended victim [Payn] is somewhat of a leveler himself."—From the *Verdict* (New York).

mysterious connection with his preferring to be governor of New York rather than Vice-President. That, of course, was a mistake. Mr. Roosevelt is rightly considered, both in Europe and America, a competent student of naval history and strategy, and it is his opinion that from the point of view of the efficient use of our navy

for the defense of both coasts we ought to be able in time of war to exclude our enemy from the use of a Nicaragua passage—provided, of course, the passage belongs to us. The governor's essay on Cromwell and his times, appearing serially in *Scribner's*, is an admirable piece of fresh and direct discussion.

*The Vice-
Presidency,
etc.*

Secretary Root and Governor Roosevelt being removed from the list of Vice-Presidential possibilities, the name of the lieutenant-governor of New York, Mr. Woodruff, is one of the many names now suggested by the newspapers; and probably the



NEW YORK AWAKENING TO THE COMMERCIAL SITUATION.
From the *Tribune* (New York).

convention will meet without having made a previous choice. Philadelphia has been sluggish in the matter of securing the guarantee of \$100,000 which was to be paid to the Republican National Committee in consideration of the holding in that city of the national convention.



PHILADELPHIA (trying to find that \$100,000): "Conventions come high."—From the *Record* (Chicago).

What This
Year's Issue
Will Be.

The date set for the Republican convention at Philadelphia is June 19. The Democrats are now proposing to fix a still earlier date for their convention. This is an innovation. In times past they have almost invariably held their conventions a week or two later than their opponents. Milwaukee has been most talked about as the meeting-place for the Democratic hosts. Mr. Bryan's renomination is now almost universally conceded. Mr. Bryan holds steadfastly to his views on the money question, and Republican tacticians are asserting that they will fight this campaign of 1900 on the old battlefield of 1896. But the party strategists cannot always choose the fighting-ground. Mr. McKinley and the chairman of the Republican National Committee, Mr. Hanna, had fully expected to fight the battle of 1896 on the tariff question. But the enemy chose the fighting-ground and dug their rifle-pits and trenches on the silver kopje. Plenty of big guns were rushed in the middle of the campaign to take this strong position, with immense quantities of ammunition

supplied by Wall Street. This year the Democrats will probably insist upon making the Republicans fight for "empire" rather than for gold. The gold-standard bill was passed by the Senate on February 15 (the House having acted, as mentioned by us last month, on December 18), and it expresses a monetary policy that is not destined to be reversed in the near future. The people of the United States will not, merely to oblige any set of party leaders, spend the campaign weeks thrashing over the old truisms and fallacies of monetary science. What the electors of this country are going to do is to vote either their general approval or their general disapproval of the way in which, since his inauguration in 1897, President McKinley has conducted a great war with Spain, annexed Hawaii, conquered and kept Puerto Rico, assumed sovereignty over the Philippine Islands, carried on a year's warfare with the Tagals of Luzon (for which purpose, by authority of Congress, he has now in that island some 63,000 American troops), and done various other things relating to the expansion of our territory and the conduct of our complicated foreign relations. The category includes the reconstruction under military government of the island of Cuba and the treatment of many novel questions of greater or less magnitude arising out of new conditions.

The Argument
Against
"Swapping
Horses."

Ordinarily the people of the United States think one term enough for a President. Since the election of Grant in 1872, nearly thirty years ago, no President has been chosen to succeed himself. But the present situation is exceptional. There are thousands of business and professional men, not very strong partisans, who believe that it would be prudent and wise to grant Mr. McKinley and his



M'KINLEY AND CHAMBERLAIN, THE GREAT ANGLO-SAXON IMPERIALISTS.

From *Don Quixote* (Madrid, January 9, 1900).

Cabinet a lease of four years more in which to complete many matters that are not now in a condition to be turned over to a new set of men. For example, we are just on the point, apparently, of trying the experiment of ending the war in Luzon by assuming that it *is* ended. The death of Gen. Gregorio del Pilar has been announced, and nothing in the way of a general direction or organization seems to remain of the once formidable Filipino movement. The President has appointed Judge William H. Taft, of Cincinnati, who has for some years been on the United States circuit bench, as head of a new commission that is to proceed to Manila to take up the work of instituting a civil *régime*. Judge Taft is a man of great legal ability and also of tact, good judgment, and administrative capacity. It is supposed that General Otis, whose indefatigable labors have not been generally appreciated at half their real worth, is soon to return to the United States. The first volume of the report of the original Philippine commission, under the chairmanship of President Schurman, became public property several weeks ago. It is an extremely valuable document, well arranged and full of instructive information regarding the



HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT.

(Who will head the commission to establish civil government in the Philippines.)



THE LATE GEN. GREGORIO DEL PILAR.

(Commander-in-chief of the Filipino insurgents, who died of fever about February 1.)

native peoples, their educational and religious status, and former modes of government, together with the draft of a plan for government under American authority. Volume II., which is in preparation, will be mainly devoted to information of a geographical and scientific character, together with chapters on agriculture, commerce, communications, public and private land-holding, and so on. There will be further volumes containing the testimony taken by the commission and numerous maps.

Shall McKinley
Be Kept
at the Helm? The outlook for a good system of government in the Philippines seems bright. There was pending in Congress last month a simple proposal vesting in the President of the United States, until further action by Congress, the sole authority to govern and administer the Philippine Archipelago. The language of this proposition is nearly or quite identical with that which was adopted by Congress at the time of the Louisiana purchase, vesting administrative authority in President Jefferson. Shall President McKinley be allowed to go on with this great work or will the country prefer to have the Hon. William J. Bryan take charge of it just one year hence? Mr. McKinley, through the War Department and the military administration of Governor-



MR. OLIVER H. P. BELMONT.

General Wood, is carrying on a very remarkable work of reconstruction in Cuba. To complete this work will probably require at least two or three years longer. And thus some other large undertakings might be named which, in the opinion of many, require continuity of treatment for the best results.



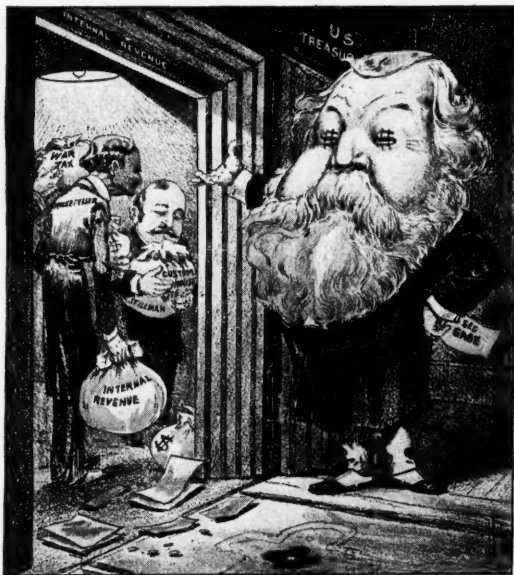
DO THE CLOTHES MAKE THE MAN?

BELMONT: "There you are, Bryan, old boy! Now you'll do to appear in the New York political 'Four Hundred.'"

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

Bryan
to Lead the
Opposition.

Those who do not want these administrative undertakings carried out on the McKinley lines, but wish a sharp reversal of the whole expansion policy, will vote for Mr. Bryan. The Democrats seem to be making up their differences, and many of the men who either supported McKinley or supported the Palmer-Buckner ticket in 1896 will work for Mr. Bryan this year. Mr. Sewall, of Maine, the Vice-Presidential candidate four years ago, seems now to be with the Republicans for expansion, shipping subsidies, and almost everything except the gold standard. Among aspirants for the second place on the ticket this year is a young New York Democrat, Mr. O. H. P. Belmont, who has been active not only in the work of bringing Eastern Democrats into line with Mr. Bryan, but also particularly in antagonizing the financial policy of the present administration. He is the owner of a weekly newspaper called



THE OPEN DOOR OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

From the *Verdict* (New York).

the *Verdict*, which is keenly though rather savagely edited, and which makes a specialty of very bold and striking political cartoons printed in colors. These cartoons of late have been devoted to attacks upon Mr. McKinley, Secretary Gage, Mr. Hanna, and other Republican leaders, on the score of their alleged intimacy with Wall Street, the money power, and the great trusts, particularly the Standard Oil Company as typified by Mr. Rockefeller. We have reproduced two or three of these cartoons from Mr. Belmont's paper.

*Puerto Rico
and the
Tariff.*

As our readers will remember, President McKinley, in his message to Congress three months ago at the opening of the present session, strongly recommended that Congress should at once give Puerto Rico the benefit of unrestricted trade with the United States. Mr. Payne, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, promptly introduced a bill extending our tariff system to the island. Great opposition, however, arose from two sources. As we remarked last month, the principal arguments against admitting the Puerto Ricans freely to our markets could be summed up in two words—sugar and tobacco. To these might be added fruit and early vegetables. In short, various agricultural interests in this country are adverse to the competition of Puerto Rican products. The other source of opposition to giving Puerto Rico free trade with this country has a legal and constitutional basis. Is Puerto Rico to be regarded as territory of the United States in the sense in which that term applies to Arizona, or is the island a colony under our sovereignty, but not under the Constitution? This question greatly exercised Congress last month. The Republicans, for the most part, adopted the colonial theory; while the Democrats, repudiating "imperialism," concluded that they would regard the annexation of Puerto Rico in the same light as our earlier acquisitions of contiguous territory on the mainland. The Republicans wished, above all things, to avoid awkward precedents. They had in mind the future status of the Philippines and also that of Cuba. The question ought not to be settled offhand.

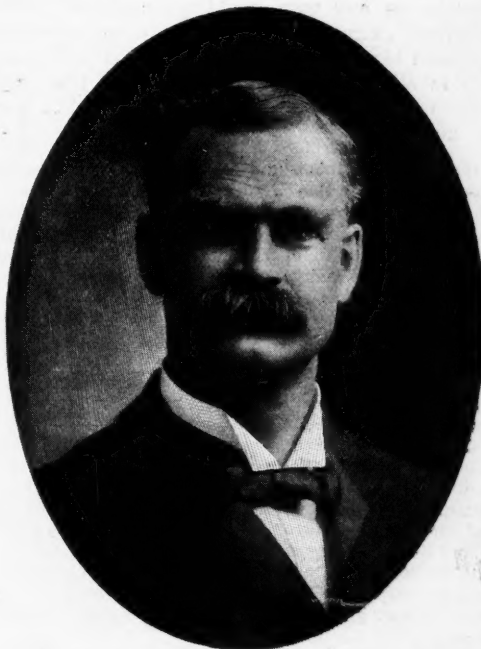
*The
Practical
Question.*

The Ways and Means Committee compromised the matter by bringing in a bill which subjected trade between Puerto Rico and the United States to the Dingley tariff divided by four. On that plan goods from all countries but our own would pay the full Dingley rates at the Puerto Rican custom-houses, while Puerto Rican products to the United States would be admitted at one-fourth the regular rates. Mr. McCall, of Massachusetts, a Republican member of the Ways and Means Committee, refused to accept this compromise, and it was expected that a considerable number of other Republicans would vote with the Democrats in favor of free trade. The individual preferences of a great majority of the members of Congress last month were for the complete removal of tariff walls between Puerto Rico and this country, but many Republicans reluctantly agreed to accept the compromise for the sake of party harmony. Three quarters of a loaf is better than no bread; and it will in any case afford

an immense relief to Puerto Rico to have three-quarters of the tariff wall broken down in her favor. If this 25-per-cent. arrangement could be put into effect immediately by mutual consent, with the understanding that the total removal of tariff barriers would come up for consideration without prejudice a year or two later, there might be some positive advantage in it.

*The Fate
of Roberts.*

It should be said that various phases of this Puerto Rican question have been debated with unusual ability in the House, and several men have added dis-



HON. CHARLES E. LITTLEFIELD, OF MAINE.

tinctly to their reputations. One of these is Mr. Littlefield, of Maine, a new member who represents the late Mr. Dingley's district. Mr. Littlefield joined Mr. McCall and certain other Republicans in opposing the report of the Ways and Means Committee. In January Mr. Littlefield had taken a conspicuous part in the discussion of the legal bearings of the case of Mr. Roberts, the Utah polygamist. He held that Roberts was plainly entitled to take his seat, after which it would be in order for the House to expel him. This view, however, did not prevail; and on the recommendation of the special committee headed by Mr. Tayler, of Ohio, Brigham H. Roberts was on January 25 refused permission to take the oath by a vote of 268 to 50.

Our Real Situation in the Philippines. About the best statement that we have seen of the actual conditions in the Philippines, particularly in the great island of Luzon, where our principal difficulties have been, is contained in a private letter received by the editor of this REVIEW last month from an American officer. The letter was not intended to be published and it contains no sensational disclosures. It simply tells the clear truth. It is sufficient to add that this officer is an exceptionally keen observer, is candid to the last degree, and is as free from bias respecting the political bearings of the Philippine question as any man could possibly be. The following extracts from his letter undoubtedly represent his absolute convictions, and it is our opinion also that they are sound and that our readers may safely accept them. The italics are his, not ours :

Conditions on this island are much more favorable to our troops than they were in Cuba. The climate is not nearly so enervating, nor have we to dread here the yellow fever. The people here are a very intelligent class, and most of them can read and write their own language. Very many of them can also read and write Spanish. They are showing considerable interest in American ways, and I have found that a good many young men are beginning the study of English. I have in mind one young man who in two months, without an instructor, has learned sufficient English to converse quite freely, and another who in the same length of time reads English very fluently.

The trouble with these people is that they have been so badly abused in the past and for so long a time that the dread and fear of white men has grown to be second nature to them. They seem to expect nothing but kicks and curses. It seems to be a continual surprise to them to find their property respected and themselves treated with courtesy and consideration. *I fully believe that they are capable of becoming, in a very short time, under proper guidance, useful citizens of the United States.*

It is a continual source of wonder to me to see how perfectly the military machine works over here in all its departments. Everything is well done, supplies are plentiful and easily obtained, and the men are healthy and well contented. It is going to be only a short time, comparatively, until this problem will be satisfactorily settled. But one thing should be remembered, and that is *the problem is an educational one.*

If the military had an organized enemy in front of them who fought according to the laws of civilized warfare and who could be soundly thrashed, that part of the thing could be quickly done ; but such is not the case. It looks as if the poor ignorant people get stampeded and go out and do some promiscuous shooting, and then recover and return to their ordinary employment. *The only way to wind up such a campaign as that is by gradually educating them to believe that we are in fact their best friends and that we are not going to do them any harm.*

It requires the utmost tact, gentleness, kindness, and firmness, with occasional use of exemplary severity ; and the man who is solving this problem is undoubt-

edly the right man for the job. *You will make no mistake, in policy or in fact, if in all that you publish you sustain in the fullest manner the administration of the American commander now in the Philippines.*

You know me to be a fearless critic on proper occasion. You can therefore believe the above to be a true expression of the honest views of a competent observer. I cannot express too strongly my admiration of what I have seen of the workings of the system in operation here. It is simply wonderful how smoothly and efficiently things are done.

The Steamship Subsidy Bill. The new aspects of the Nicaragua Canal question, due to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, delayed the consideration of that subject in Congress, so that it is now not probable that the present session will see conclusive action of any kind on the canal topic. Another question of importance seems also destined to be held over until next winter—namely, the steamship subsidy bill. The measure has by no means been abandoned, and if its friends should push it resolutely there is reason to think that it might become a law at once ; but some of the shrewdest Republican leaders of the West have sounded a warning note to the effect that a great shipping subsidy law, passed in the face of Democratic opposition, would be a bad card to play on the eve of a Presidential election. We publish elsewhere in this number an article by President Hadley, of Yale, pointing out what he regards as some of the general dangers and disadvantages of the policy of using surplus revenue for the payment of subsidies to steamship lines. We also present a contribution from the pen of an experienced and able Boston journalist, Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, who has for a long time been a student of practical shipping questions, and who advocates the subsidy policy with good faith and in a patriotic spirit.

Kentucky's Political Paroxysm.

The early part of the past month witnessed such a frenzy of excitement over politics in the State of Kentucky as apparently to amount to the temporary insanity of a whole population. The paroxysm was brief ; and there is a disposition to seek remedies against recurring attacks. Of recent years Kentucky, once solidly Democratic, has belonged in the list of doubtful States, the Republicans having carried it a number of times. Last fall the Democrats would certainly have been successful but for bitter personal and factional quarrels which shattered the party and led to the running of two Democratic State tickets. The most ambitious and the most indefatigable factor in the Democratic politics of Kentucky for some years had been William Goebel, a young Pennsylvania German who had made his way in Kentucky pol-

itics by introducing the more cold-blooded methods of machine organization, the success of which he had observed in certain other States. He was the author two years ago of the Goebel election law, a most pernicious and evil measure, invented to serve personal and party ends rather than to secure a fair ballot and an honest count. This law may be summed up in a few words. It put the election machinery in the hands of three State commissioners to be chosen by the Legislature.



THE LATE HON. WILLIAM E. GOEBEL.

These commissioners, in turn, were to appoint the county election boards throughout the State. These county boards were to appoint the local and precinct election officers. Mr. Goebel is said to have adopted the motto that he cared not how the votes were cast if only he could control the counting. His law established partisan preponderance from the bottom to the top, and deliberately created the very sort of opportunity for crime that it is the object of good election laws to guard against. The man who could manipulate the choice of the three commissioners at the head of the system could control the results of any State election.

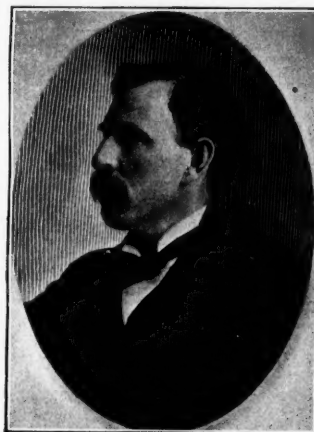
*Goebellism
in Prac-
tice.*

Mr. Goebel succeeded in obtaining the nomination for governor last year on the regular Democratic ticket. The split in his party, however, gave the Republicans their opportunity, and in spite of alleged unfairness on the part of some of the Democratic county election boards, the Republican candidate, Mr. W. S. Taylor, was found to be elected by a plurality of several thousand votes. Accordingly he took his seat as Governor Bradley's successor at the beginning of the present year. Mr. Goebel, however, who held a seat in the State Senate, had not played his final card. The Goebel election law provides that the Legislature may entertain a contest against the finding of the election commissioners. Not to prolong the story, it is enough to say that Mr. Goebel actually succeeded in his scheme of having a committee of the Legislature enter-

tain favorably his claim to the governorship, with the prospect that the Democratic majority in the Legislature would adopt the report of the committee. When it became known that this programme was expected to succeed, the Republicans, whose principal strength is in the mountain counties, flocked to Frankfort, the State capital, in great numbers. Hundreds of the mountaineers came down carrying their rifles, in order, as they said, to see that Governor Taylor got fair play. Nearly all of them were induced by the Republicans to go quietly back to their homes.

*Violence
Versus
Fraud.*

But while the tension was still great, some one shot and fatally wounded Mr. Goebel on the morning of January 30 as he was approaching the State Capitol. In anticipation of trouble, it should be said, Governor Bradley, followed by Governor Taylor, had given a decidedly Republican cast to the or-



HON. W. S. TAYLOR.

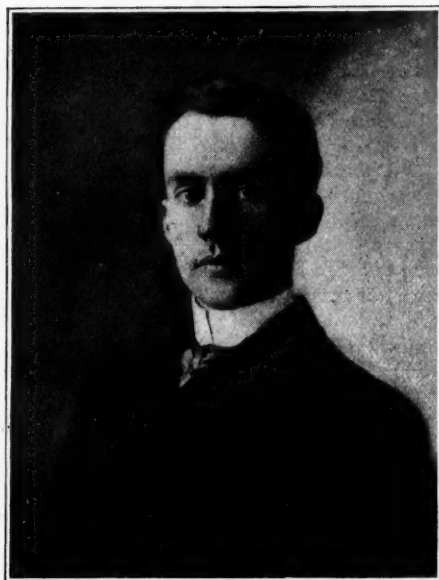
ganization of the State militia, and the State House and its environs became an armed camp. To prevent the Legislature from acting upon the report of the contest committee the governor excluded it from the State House and declared it adjourned, to meet a week later in the mountain town

of London. The militia broke up every attempt of the Democratic legislators to meet in other buildings at Frankfort, but they managed to circulate and sign an indorsement of the finding in favor of Goebel, who accordingly took the oath of office as governor on his death-bed. He expired on February 3, and the Democrats immediately administered the oath of office to Mr. J. C. W. Beckham, who had run for the lieutenant-governorship on the Goebel ticket. For several days the talk of violence was unrestrained. The Democrats refused to recognize Taylor as governor, and of course ignored the call to meet on Republican territory in the village of London. The Republicans, in turn, refused to recognize Beckham, and both sides sought redress in the courts. The legal ques-

tions involved were complicated. For a time Governor Taylor seemed in great danger of completely sacrificing the moral strength of his position by relying upon mere force, whereas the Democrats were technically, at least, observing the law at every step. Both sides gradually recovered their normal sanity. Governor Taylor allowed the Legislature to resume the work of the session in its own proper place, and it was understood that he would continue to act as governor until the courts had passed upon the legality of the proceedings by which it was attempted to install first Goebel and then Beckham.

However objectionable the Goebel election law may be, it is valid and binding until repealed. Revolvers and Winchester rifles have no place whatever in American politics. Kentucky's principal need is disarmament. The State has been on a war footing ever since Daniel Boone's time. In the mountains they use rifles and shotguns, while in the Blue Grass and cities the politicians carry revolvers. Of the two practices, that of the mountaineers is decidedly the more excusable. Kentucky ought to enact a decent election law, for very shame. We publish elsewhere a very timely and interesting article about the mountaineers of Kentucky and the Appalachian region from the pen of President William Goodell Frost, of Berea College, Kentucky, who knows them well. Educational work like that which he is carrying

*Kentucky
Had Better
Disarm.*



HON. J. C. W. BECKHAM.

on will help to make politics and neighborhood life less strenuous and bloody in the mountain counties. Kentucky, meanwhile, continues to be an excellent State in spite of its paroxysmal politics and homicidal proclivities, and the average citizen lives to as hale an old age there as in Massachusetts. The venerable Cassius M. Clay, for instance, who was one of the founders of Berea College before the war, still survives in Madison County, in his ninetieth year.



From a photograph taken for *Leslie's Weekly*.

THE STATE HOUSE AT FRANKFORT, KY.

(The cross in the path marks the spot where Senator Goebel was shot.)

*The Hay-
Pauncefote
Treaty.*

In January Congress seemed on the point of cutting the Gordian knot and delivering the Nicaragua Canal project from the entanglements of intrigue and diplomacy which have so long victimized it. Committees of both houses had made unanimous reports favoring the prompt construction by the United States Government of an interoceanic ship canal upon ground to which our Government was to secure title by cession from Nicaragua and Costa Rica. This plan treated the canal as a part

of the navigable waterways of the United States, the link between our Atlantic and Pacific seaboard, an inestimable addition to our national defenses, and a means of doubling the utility of our navy. Overwhelming majorities, regardless of party, in the House and in the Senate alike, were prepared to give quick passage to this excellent measure brought forward by Mr. Hepburn, as chairman of the House Commerce Committee, and Senator Morgan, as chairman of the Senate's special committee on interoceanic canals. It was supposed as a matter of course that this line of policy—the success of which called for prompt action and harmonious cooperation, not only of both political parties, but also especially of all branches of the Government—had the entire approval of President McKinley and his Cabinet. It would not be easy, therefore, to overstate the bewildered surprise of Congress and the country when it was announced that Secretary Hay, on behalf of the United States, and Lord Pauncefote, on behalf of England, had signed a treaty the object of which was to put the United States under pledges, not only for this generation, but for all posterity to the end of time, that it would not fortify its own canal or make use of it in time of war to accomplish the very objects that the country had in mind as the reasons for constructing it. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty contemplates a canal at the

expense of the United States of America for the equal benefit of international commerce, to be neutralized under the guarantee of the great commercial nations of the world. In plain English, Mr. Hay's plan specifically asks the concert of Europe to take political control of a canal built by our Government.

The Clayton-Bulwer Agreement.

Even if this treaty should be rejected by the Senate, its after effects must embarrass the Hepburn-Morgan project. It purports to be a revision of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850; and its negotiation has meant the acknowledgment on the part of Secretary Hay of the unimpaired validity of an old arrangement which Mr. Hay's predecessors and American statesmen regardless of party for a quarter of a century have agreed in pronouncing obsolete and voidable, and "not worth the paper upon which it was written." This agreement, although in its phraseology it was given a perpetually binding force, had strict reference to a state of affairs existing at the time. Its provisions have been habitually disregarded by the British Government and treated as obsolete by our own. Those who are familiar with English legal and official opinion tell us that it has been taken for granted in England that nothing in that old treaty would stand in the way of the United States constructing the Nicaragua Canal when it found itself ready to do so. In reply to questions in the House of Commons since the signing of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the British Government has said in effect that the provisions of the new agreement which prevent the United States from ever fortifying its canal, and which place it under the guarantee of the powers of Europe, were not inserted by demand of England, but were express proposals of Mr. Hay on behalf of the United States. This seems rather difficult to believe, but it has not been contradicted at Washington, so far as we are aware.

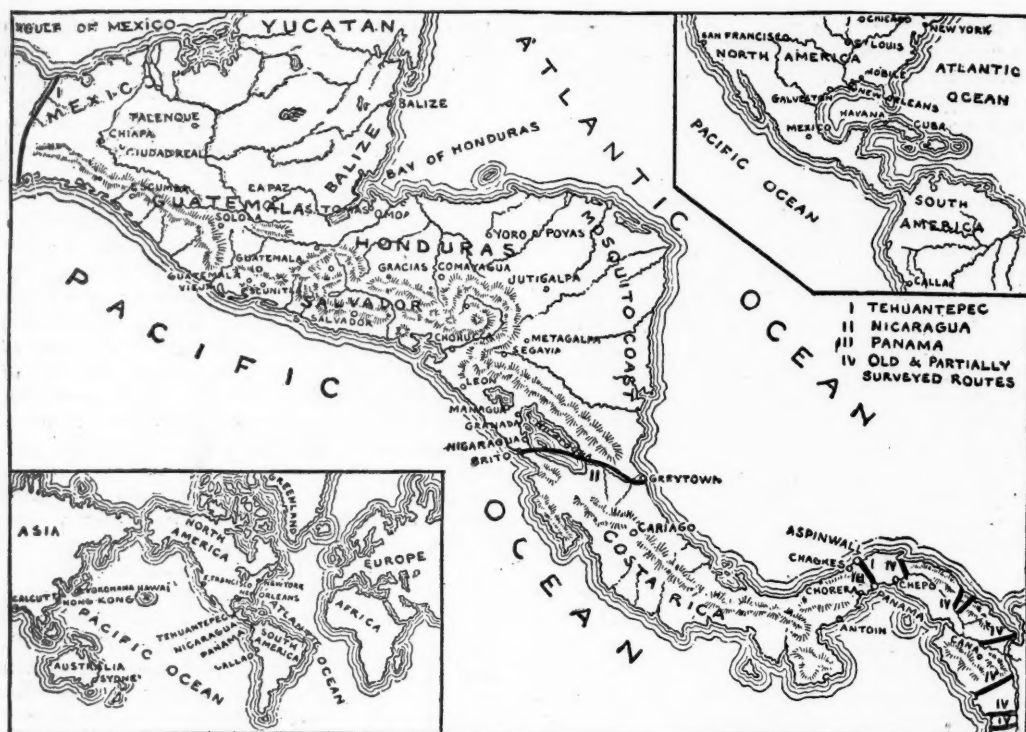
Must Europe Forever Control the American Canal?

All modern international law writers recognize the fact that nations must and will, in the interpretation of old treaties, look at substantial equities and obligations rather than at mere phrases. The men of Mr. Clayton's time had a right to say to their English contemporaries that the particular interoceanic canal which everybody then expected European capital under private auspices would be digging inside of a twelvemonth would not be regarded in this country as necessarily under the exclusive political control of the United States. But if the people of the United States should now construct the Nicaragua Canal with



THE NEW COLOSSUS OF ROADS.

(What Congress had in mind before the Hay-Pauncefote treaty appeared.)—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



public money they will inevitably—treaty or no treaty—use that canal in future times for their own purposes of defense and protection. The law of self-preservation would be regarded as a higher law than a treaty negotiated in a short-sighted spirit of self-renunciation under which no *quid pro quo* had been asked or received. Of course the hands of the United States will not stay tied. No vigorous and growing country permits itself to be bound by perpetual treaties. It is immoral on the face of it for one generation to attempt to fix the policy of its successors. A few years ago the European nations were contending that because of the phraseology of their commercial treaties with Japan (which allowed them to sell their goods there by payment of a very low rate of duty), the Japanese, neither then nor at any time in all the centuries to come, would be at liberty to revise their own tariff and tax imports to suit themselves. One of the principal motives of the war with China was to enable Japan to test its ability to use modern military and naval machines, in order that its courage might be equal to a repudiation of the vexatious European commercial treaties. Those treaties are now a thing of the past; and everybody with a particle of instinct for equity knows that Japan

was abundantly justified in resuming control over its own taxation system.

*Our Work
in This
Hemisphere.*

Europe rests on a basis of tremendous army and navy organizations. The whole western hemisphere, on the other hand, is upon a peace basis. From Alaska to Patagonia there are no large armies. We have an effective navy, but a small one. The benignant influence of the United States has kept the western hemisphere free from the necessity of making warlike preparation the principal end and object of national life. Let the rival armed camps of the other hemisphere deal with the affairs of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and let all peaceful commerce have access to the Nicaragua Canal on reasonable terms; but let America not have to ask the consent of anybody in Europe if it should ever find that its task of safeguarding the peaceful development of the western hemisphere would be more effectively served by fortifying its own interoceanic canal. Our State Department has tried to lay one old ghost by an arrangement which means a hundred new ghosts for subsequent Secretaries of State. In short, if our Nicaragua Canal project was destined to be plagued with treaties made for

momentary emergencies, but molded in the form of perpetual obligations, it would have been much better to have kept the old familiar Clayton-Bulwer treaty. But why should we have kept even that?

*The Ethics
of Old
Treaties.*

Even in the matter of a promissory note between individuals the law attaches high importance to the question whether or not there has been "value received." In other words, the law cares less for the written words which constitute a promise than for the substantial obligation that lies behind the promise. Back of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty there does not linger the slightest vestige of any substantial obligation on the part of the United States. There is nothing analogous to the duty of rendering a *quid pro quo*. Where nothing has been received there is nothing to pay. John Stuart Mill and numerous other writers on the equity of such treaties have made it perfectly plain that where a convention has been signed that is temporary in its very nature, yet is given the form of perpetuity in its phrasing, it will of necessity be abrogated when the temporary circumstances have been outlived and new conditions render it desirable to deal freely with a given situation. A simple and honest way to deal with the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is to inform England that the people and the public men of the United States have long considered it morally and practically a dead letter, and that it would be agreeable to us to have England's formal consent to its abrogation. Since there is nothing whatever in the treaty that is of real value and importance to England, there is no reason to suppose that there would be any hesitation on the part of Lord Salisbury to accept our view of the

matter, especially as this is precisely what the best-informed English newspapers have been advising him to do.

*Diplomacy
Should Have
Been at Work
Elsewhere.*

There is not a trace of unfriendliness toward Great Britain and the British empire in the proposals for an American canal under the control of our Government. On the other hand, it is greatly to England's interest to have the canal built promptly and to have us own and control it. It would scarcely seem as if there could have been any reason for protracted negotiations with England on such a subject as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. But there was one field in which this administration ought to have been working with the utmost concentration of diplomatic energy and intelligence. That field is Central America. It ought to have been easy enough to convince Nicaragua and Costa Rica, if the right efforts had been made, that in no other way could they so certainly assure their prosperity and safety as in granting an out-and-out cession of a strip of territory for canal purposes over which we should exercise sovereignty in as complete a sense as over Puerto Rico or Hawaii. Having gained this point we should have been able, undoubtedly, to give England assurances that would have made her heartily ready to waive the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and lend her moral encouragement to our execution of a project that was bound to affect her interests favorably.

*The Key
to Our Future
Development.*

The only justification for any annexation policy whatever lies in carrying it to the point of a rounded and logical completion. The McKinley administration may perchance feel that it has already brought about as much annexation as it desires and a good deal more than it had anticipated. But that is no reason why the administration should propose to block the progress of American annexation for a hundred years to come. George Washington did not sign a perpetual treaty with all European nations that this country would never under any circumstances enlarge its domain by purchasing the Louisiana country. Mr. Webster, when he arranged the northwestern boundary line, did not gratuitously pledge the United States never to purchase Russian America. The one thing that we really need in the line of annexation is a strip of Central America; and why in the world should this administration embarrass future administrations by making it impossible for us ever to exercise sovereignty in the one spot that we need and that it is eminently appropriate we should possess? The country will at least insist upon knowing what is meant by this new move and what lies behind it before



TEARING UP THE CLAYTON-BULWER COMPACT.

JOHN BULL: "We won't quarrel about a little thing like this."—From the *Herald* (New York).

running the risk of sacrificing the most vital point in American policy by a blind acceptance of a treaty wholly different in its character from anything that either England or America had asked for, expected, or desired.

The Canal, of Course, is Indefinitely Delayed. In any case, the opponents of an interoceanic canal—who have been playing the Panama scheme off against the Nicaragua proposal for the sole purpose of delay—are naturally elated by the new and unexpected reinforcement they have received. Nobody can think it strange that the Southern Pacific and other transcontinental railroads should look with hostile eyes upon any ship canal whatever. They are building up an ever-increasing through business with the Orient, a considerable part of which they believe would desert them as soon as an all-water route for steamships should enter into competition. They have been far less apprehensive of the success of private canal companies than of the plan of direct construction by the United States Government; and they have perceived, especially since the war with Spain and the accession of new territory, that the political and naval argument was appealing much more strongly than the commercial argument in favor of a canal. But—now that Mr. Hay's new treaty at a stroke eliminates the political and naval advantages that were to accrue to us from the construction of the canal at the expense of the taxpayers of the United States, and carefully deprives Americans of any superior advantages of any kind—the question arises most forcibly, Why should the United States Government spend American money to dig a canal on alien soil over which it is pledged never to acquire or exercise sovereignty, in which its own warships are to have no advantage over those of an enemy, and through which American merchant ships are forever denied any better terms than those of all other countries?

Why Spend Public Money? This plan puts the United States simply in the position of a private capitalist going abroad to invest money in a purely commercial undertaking. There may, indeed, be some good reason why our Government should build the canal, even on this basis. We are not prepared to say that the project ought to be abandoned or turned over to that great modern power, International Capital, which—whether localized in New York, London, Paris, Frankfurt, or Berlin—knows absolutely no allegiance to any government. But the more ordinary dictates of prudence would seem to favor the comparatively conservative idea that the United States should buy up the railroad and

telegraph lines which lie within its own sovereign dominions, rather than embark perhaps \$200,000,000 of our public money in an enterprise which we carefully invite Europe in advance to guarantee that we shall never in the dire emergency of war be permitted to use for our own benefit. This is the only practical meaning that the so-called "neutralization" of the canal can have. Mr. Hay's treaty proposes that it shall be the absolute property of the United States, but that if in war-time we should choose to fortify our own Government's property or to exclude our enemy's ships from its use, we should have made it both the right and the duty of all the world to take up arms against us. This is why, in our opinion, the Hay-Pauncefote treaty will, if ratified, tend to war rather than peace. It gives Europe a control that America should keep. It would compel us to build a navy at least twice as large as we should otherwise need. If we were to become a party to the international compact that controls the Suez Canal, Europe would still control in fact, for this country would be in a minority of one. In like manner, if the Hay-Pauncefote plan is adopted, we shall have put ourselves in exactly that same minority of one in the control of a Nicaragua canal built for Europe at our expense and risk.

Read the Text of the Treaties! In order that our readers may find it convenient to judge for themselves, we print elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW the full text of this new Hay-Pauncefote treaty, and also in the same connection reproduce the text of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which so many people have discussed and which so few people have read. The two documents, of course, need to be consulted together. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, as a careful reading of it will show, was framed on the supposition that a canal was at once to be built, and on the theory that the treaty was not to be a dual, but an international compact, through the adherence of other governments, which were to be invited at once to become parties to it. But the agreement to urge participation upon other powers seems never to have been carried out; so that England and America remained the only signatories. Circumstances are so different now, however, that under Article III. of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty it is not easy to see why France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and all the other commercial and naval powers should not make haste to give in their adherence. If they had availed themselves of the opportunity to sign the treaty of 1850, the question of abrogation would have to be discussed not merely with England, but with a group of powers whose

policies—secretly, if not openly—are hostile to England and unfriendly to the United States. Is the present a felicitous moment for reopening the invitation to the world that was contained in Article VI. of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty—"to the end," as that document puts it, "that all other states may share in the honor and advantage of having contributed to a work of such general interest and importance as the canal herein contemplated"? Emphatically, it is not.

The Prelude to Anglo-American Alliance. It will naturally be asked, Why should this Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which in form puts the Nicaragua Canal under the same control as the Suez Canal, be particularly acceptable to Lord Salisbury? The question is susceptible of a complete answer: There is nothing that the British Government so much desires as an alliance with the United States. Having bought a controlling interest in the shares of the Suez Canal Company, the British Government virtually owns that enterprise, using the word ownership in its commercial sense. But the well-known conditions pertaining to the history of the Suez undertaking, which we need not recapitulate, had brought about political neutralization under the joint guarantee of nine European powers. England really controls the canal, however, by virtue (1) of maintaining a navy incomparably stronger than any that could be combined against her and (2) by her fortified possession of the outer entrances to the Mediterranean and Red Seas and her other strongholds on the Suez route to India. Now, if the United States Government should become the private owner of a Nicaragua canal politically neutralized under European guarantees, our nominal position would be strikingly analogous to that of England at Suez. But our real position would be wholly different. Lacking a large navy and lacking strategical positions commanding the approaches, our only chance of keeping the Nicaragua Canal open against an unfriendly European coalition would lie in the good offices and friendly protection of the British navy. Lord Rosebery, on February 15, stated in the House of Lords that as recently as December the British Government "made vigorous overtures to two great powers—Germany and the United States—for an alliance, but these overtures were not received with such cordiality as to encourage the government to pursue them." Lord Rosebery is too responsible a statesman to have made this asser-

tion without knowing it to be true. It may be said with the certainty of a mathematical demonstration that the adoption of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty must mean either the abandonment of a Nicaragua canal under the auspices of the Government of the United States or else an eventual alliance between England and this country. There are those in America as well as in England who desire such an alliance; but if it is to come we, for our part, should prefer to find other reasons than our open need of invoking the aid of England's sea power to help us maintain the general principle of the Monroe Doctrine.

In Praise of Our State Department. All this, we need not tell our regular readers, is written in no spirit of hostility to England, and much less in a spirit of opposition to the administration at Washington. The high esteem in which we hold Secretary Hay is reflected in the character sketch of that accomplished and able Cabinet minister published by us only two months ago, and also in the praise accorded Mr. Hay in these pages last month for his magnificent achievement in securing for us the "open door" in China. This alone—even if he had not also brilliantly solved the Samoan complication and held the portfolio of State at a time when a great number of other questions belonging to our foreign relations were finding sound solutions under his direction—would assuredly place him permanently in the rank of our great Secretaries of State. He is entitled to confidence and admiration, and we heartily accord both. There is certainly nothing ignoble about this last treaty of his; and if the world were a hundred years nearer the wished-for period of disarmament and perpetual peace, the treaty would be as safe in practice as it is fine and magnanimous in theory. It simply belongs, in our opinion, to that good time coming when the Monroe Doctrine will have outlived its usefulness, and when the federation of man will have guaranteed not merely the free, equal, and peaceful use of all ship canals, but will also have dismantled the Gibaltars, abolished such heart-rending brutalities as the South African War, and forever removed the sad necessity of such a use of modern inventive genius as was displayed in the floating mechanisms that wrought the destruction in 1898 of the two Spanish fleets. That good time will surely come; but meanwhile America had better take charge of the Nicaragua Canal and annex the needed territory.



RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 20 to February 18, 1900.)



MAJ.-GEN. E. R. P. WOODGATE.

(In command of the Ninth Brigade of General Buller's army—wounded at Spion Kop.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 20.—Majority and minority reports of the committee to investigate the claims of Brigham H. Roberts (Dem.) to a seat in the House as a Representative from Utah are presented.

January 23.—Majority and minority reports are presented by the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections in the case of Matthew S. Quay (Rep., Pa.). . . . The House begins debate on the case of Brigham H. Roberts (Dem., Utah).

January 24.—The Senate adopts the resolution of Mr. Pettigrew (Sil. Rep., S. D.) calling for information about the treaty with the Sultan of Sulu. . . . The House continues debate on the Roberts case.

January 25.—The Senate passes an urgent deficiency appropriation bill carrying about \$9,000,000. . . . The House, by a vote of 81 to 244, defeats the proposition to seat and then expel Brigham H. Roberts as a Representative from Utah and adopts the resolution for exclusion by a vote of 268 to 50, the final vote in the affirmative consisting of 166 Republicans, 97 Democrats, 4 Populists, and 1 Silverite.

January 31.—The Senate discusses the alleged recogni-

tion by the United States of the so-called Filipino republic. . . . The House considers the Indian appropriation bill.

February 2.—The Senate considers the Hague peace treaty and the extradition treaty with Argentina. . . . The House passes a bill for the benefit of Cuban shipping.

February 3.—The House passes the Indian appropriation bill.

February 5.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the Hague treaty and the Argentine extradition treaty.

February 6.—An agreement is reached in the Senate by which the currency bill is to have precedence over everything except routine business. . . . The House debates the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

February 7.—The House passes the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill.

February 8.—The Ways and Means Committee presents to the House three reports on the Puerto Rican tariff bill.

February 9.—In the Senate Mr. Jones (Dem., Ark.) introduces a free-silver substitute for the currency bill.

February 12.—The House passes a bill extending the bonding privilege to goods in transit in all parts of the United States.

February 14.—In the Senate a bimetallist amendment to the currency bill offered by Mr. Chandler (Rep., N. H.) is defeated; general debate on the bill is closed. . . . The House considers the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

February 15.—The Senate, by a vote of 46 to 29, passes the substitute for the House currency bill, amended in favor of international bimetallism and to provide for national banks with \$25,000 capital in towns of not more than 4,000 inhabitants.

February 16.—The Senate begins consideration of the bill for the government of Hawaii. . . . The House, in committee of the whole, strikes out the provision for the Civil Service Commission from the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

February 17.—The House passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill, having restored the provision for the Civil Service Commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 25.—Governor Roosevelt submits to the New York Legislature the report of the special canal commission recommending the expenditure of \$60,000,000 on a barge canal from Buffalo to Albany.

January 27.—The United States Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections hears arguments in the contest over the seat of Senator Scott (Rep., W. Va.).

January 29.—Secretary Gage replies to a resolution of the United States Senate inquiring as to his relations with the National City Bank of New York. . . . Governor Roosevelt nominates Francis Hendricks as New York State superintendent of insurance, to succeed Louis F. Payn.

January 30.—State Senator William Goebel, Democratic contestant for the Kentucky governorship, is shot and mortally wounded at Frankfort; Governor Taylor issues a proclamation adjourning the Legislature to meet at London, Laurel County, on February 6.

January 31.—The oath of office as governor of Kentucky is administered to Senator Goebel on his deathbed and also to J. C. W. Beckham, Democratic contestant for the lieutenant-governorship; State troops prevent the assembling of the Legislature in Frankfort.

February 2.—Republican members of the California Legislature (in special session) nominate Thomas R. Bard for United States Senator.

February 3.—The Kentucky courts grant an injunction restraining Governor Taylor from exercising the functions of his office.

February 6.—The California Legislature elects Thomas R. Bard (Rep.) United States Senator.... President McKinley appoints Judge William H. Taft head of a new Philippine commission to establish civil government in the archipelago.

February 8.—An attendance of 100,000 children is reported in the public schools opened in Cuba by the United States Government.

February 10.—Governor Taylor recalls the Kentucky Legislature to the capital and orders the troops home.

February 17.—Chairman Hepburn, of the House Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, makes public his report on the Nicaragua Canal.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 20.—The German Reichstag passes the government's estimates after debate.

January 24.—A conference of the Australian premiers begins its session at Sydney.... The Austro-Hungarian ministry appoints a special commission on the mining strike.

January 25.—The Emperor of China nominates his successor in the person of a boy of nine, son of Prince Tuan.

January 26.—The Dowager Empress dismisses Lung Lu, chief of the Chinese forces, on account of his supposed disapproval of the *coup d'état*.

January 27.—The Finnish Diet is opened with the reading of the Czar's speech from the throne.

January 28.—The elections to the French Senate result in the choice of 61 Republicans, 6 Liberal Republicans, 18 Radicals, 7 Socialists, 4 Monarchists, and 3 Nationalists; the composition of the Senate remains essentially unchanged.

January 30.—The British Parliament is opened with the reading of the Queen's speech.

February 3.—Four Brazilian naval officers and several marines are arrested in Rio de Janeiro for attempting to incite a monarchist demonstration.

February 5.—Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, secretary of state for the colonies, addresses the British House of Commons in reply to criticisms of the government's course in South Africa.... M. Fallières is reelected president of the French Senate by a large majority.

February 6.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 352 to 139, rejects an amendment to the Queen's speech censuring the government.

February 7.—A Mexican plebiscite is nearly unanimous for the reelection of President Diaz.



BRITISH RIFLE BRIGADE PRACTICING HILL-CLIMBING WITH MAXIM GUN AT PIETERMARITZBURG.

(This picture gives a very good idea of the country the British soldier has to march over.)

February 9.—The British House of Commons adopts the address in reply to the Queen's speech by a vote of 229 to 39.

February 10.—Archduke Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, renounces his claim to the succession and marries Countess Chotek.

February 12.—In the French Chamber of Deputies a bill is introduced by the ministry providing for the punishment by imprisonment of ministers of religion who publicly attack officials.... In the British House of Commons George Wyndham, parliamentary secretary of the War Office, makes a statement regarding war preparations.

February 13.—The French Chamber of Deputies discusses the Martinique mining strikes.

February 15.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 239 to 34, adopts the government's military scheme; in the House of Lords Lord Rosebery attacks the government's proposals on the ground of inadequacy; Lord Salisbury and the Marquis of Lansdowne reply.

February 16.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 213 to 32, passes the supplementary army estimates of £13,000,000.

February 17.—Gen. Sir Charles Warren is elected to the British Parliament for the Newark division of Nottinghamshire.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 24.—The commercial and navigation treaty between Germany and Uruguay is ratified at Berlin.

January 29.—The State Department at Washington orders an investigation of the report that six Americans have been shot in Mexico.

January 30.—Russia, through the Loan Bank of Persia, guarantees a loan of 22,500,000 rubles (\$11,475,000) to the Persian Government.

February 1.—A joint note to the Chinese Government from the American, British, Italian, French, and German ministers at Peking demands protection for all missionaries in China.

February 5.—A convention amending the Clayton-Bulwer treaty between the United States and Great

Britain is signed at Washington by Secretary Hay and Ambassador Pauncefoot. (See page 332.)

February 6.—Adelbert S. Hay, United States consul at Pretoria, presents his credentials to the government of the South African Republic.

February 8.—A reciprocity agreement between the United States and Italy under the Dingley act is signed at Washington by Commissioner Kasson and Ambassador Fava.

February 12.—President McKinley nominates commissioners to the Paris exposition.

February 13.—Hearings on the reciprocity treaty between the United States and France are closed at Paris.

February 14.—Ex-Consul Macrum makes public his reasons for leaving his post as the representative of American interests in Pretoria.

February 15.—It is announced that Rabah, the principal chieftain of the Central Soudan, has been defeated in battle by a French expedition.

February 16.—Ratifications of the new Samoan treaty are exchanged simultaneously in Washington, London, and Berlin.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA.

January 20.—In the British advance on Ladysmith Sir Charles Warren moves to the attack of Spion Kop; General Clery fights a thirteen hours' battle, suffering slight casualties.

January 22.—Fighting continues in the vicinity of Spion Kop, all of General Warren's forces being brought into action.



MAJ.-GEN. T. KELLY-KENNY.

(Commanding the Sixth Division.)

January 23.—A storming party of General Warren's men captures Spion Kop by a night attack; General Woodgate is dangerously wounded.

January 24.—The British force holds Spion Kop, but suffers severely from the Boer shell fire.

January 25.—The British troops withdraw from Spion Kop, having suffered a loss of 209 in killed, wounded, and missing; the Boer loss is 53 killed and 120 wounded.

January 27.—All of General Buller's force is withdrawn to the south side of the Tugela River.



GEN. NEVILLE GERALD LYTTLTON.

(Who commanded a brigade in General Buller's attempts to relieve Ladysmith.)

February 5.—General Buller's troops recross the Tugela at two points.

February 9.—Being unable to make headway against a strong Boer position at Vaalkrantz, General Buller's troops retire across the Tugela, and the third attempt to relieve Ladysmith ends in failure.

February 12.—The British troops under General Wood seize Zoutpan's Drift; the Boers make successful attacks on the British lines near Rensberg.... Lord Roberts' invasion of the Orange Free State begins at a drift on the Riet River.

February 13.—General French, with a cavalry brigade, advances to Modder River, capturing five Boer laagers.

February 14.—General Buller begins his fourth advance to the relief of Ladysmith.

February 15.—General French, with his cavalry, reaches Kimberley; the Boer troops under General Cronje abandon their trenches at Magersfontein and retreat eastward toward Bloemfontein; the British fall back from Rensberg to Arundel; Lord Roberts occupies Jakobsdal.

February 16.—General Brabant's horse force the Boers from a strong position at Dordrecht, Cape Colony.

February 17.—General Kelly-Kenny continues the pursuit of the Boers in the direction of Bloemfontein.

February 18.—General Buller takes several Boer camps northeast of Chieveley.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 20.—As the result of a fire started in the Asiatic quarter of Honolulu as a measure against the bubonic plague, the whole Chinese quarter, covering 13 blocks, is burned to the ground, and 4,500 persons are made homeless.

January 26.—The carpenters employed on the Paris exposition strike for higher wages.

January 30.—M. Zola is acquitted in the libel action brought against him by the editor of the *Petit Journal*, who accused M. Zola of forgery in the defense of his father's memory.

January 31.—The census taken by the United States Government shows the present population of Cuba to be 1,572,840 and of Puerto Rico 957,679.



THE LATE RICHARD D. BLACKMORE.

February 2.—The plague at Honolulu is believed to be well under control; the deaths to date number 46; about 10,000 persons are isolated by the quarantine; 10 blocks of buildings outside of Chinatown have been burned.

February 3.—The temperature at Buenos Ayres is 120° in the shade; 102 cases of sunstroke are officially reported, of which 93 are fatal.

February 4.—A fire in the business portion of St. Louis destroys property to the amount of \$2,000,000.

February 5.—Filipino insurgents estimated to number 5,000 attack the American garrison at Daraga, in the province of Albay, Luzon; they are repulsed after they have burned much of the town.

February 8.—The annual convention of the National American Woman Suffrage Association opens in Washington.

February 10.—Seven thousand workmen employed on Chicago buildings refuse to work on Saturday afternoon.... Roland B. Molineux, accused of the killing of Mrs. Katharine J. Adams by a poison package sent to Harry Cornish, is convicted of murder in the first degree in New York City.

February 12.—Viceroy Curzon states that those now receiving famine relief in India number 3,784,000.... An "anti-trust" conference is held in Chicago.

February 16.—An expedition under Generals Bates and Bell leaves Manila to drive the insurgents out of the province of Camarines, Luzon.

February 17.—Six hundred Finlanders sail from Liverpool for Canada, making about 8,000 who have emigrated in the past six months.

OBITUARY.

January 20.—John Ruskin, 81. (See page 289.)

January 21.—Richard Doddridge Blackmore, author of "Lorna Doone," 75.... The Duke of Teck, 63.... Prof. D. E. Hughes, the electrician, 69.... Rev. J. Henry Sharpe, D.D., a prominent Presbyterian clergyman, 58.

January 22.—Ex-United States Senator John P. Stockton, of New Jersey, 73.... Theodore Bacon, a prominent lawyer of Rochester, N. Y., 66.

January 23.—Prof. Henry Allen Hazen, one of the chief forecasters of the United States Weather Bureau, 51.... Gen. Thaddeus H. Stanton, U. S. A., 65.

January 25.—Dowager Duchess Frederick of Schleswig-Holstein, mother of the German Empress, 65.

January 26.—Mrs. Mary Elodie Gruber, one of the oldest residents and a descendant of one of the founders of St. Louis.

January 28.—James Watson Gerard, author of legal works, 78.... Maj. Thomas A. Brander, a well-known ex-Confederate officer of Virginia, 60.

January 29.—Prof. Charles Francis Dunbar, of Harvard University, 70.... Rev. William W. Eddy, D.D., for many years a missionary in Syria, 74.

January 31.—General Correa, formerly Spanish minister of war.... The Marquis of Queensberry, 55.... Albert Kimberly Fulton, Baltimore journalist, 64.

February 1.—Cardinal Vicar D. M. Jacobini, 63.... Mrs. Kinsey Thomas, a well-known Maryland woman.

February 2.—Mrs. Annie Wittmeyer, who became famous as an army nurse in the Civil War, 72.... William Stanley Haseltine, the artist, 65.

February 3.—William Goebel, contestant for the governorship of Kentucky, 44.... Ex-Postmaster-General David McKendree Key, 76.... Sir Thomas Grainger Stewart, the noted Scotch physician, 62.... Gen. William Woods Averell, a conspicuous Union cavalry leader in the Civil War, 67.

February 4.—Joseph Lyman Partridge, of Brooklyn, N. Y., the oldest living graduate of Williams College, 96.

February 5.—William Henry Gilder, the arctic explorer, 62.... Rev. Edward Griffin Porter, D.D., president of the New England Genealogical Society, 62.

February 6.—Rev. John Kennedy, a leading English Nonconformist, 87.

February 7.—Charles François Felu, the armless Belgian painter, 70.

February 8.—Dr. George W. Smith, formerly president of Colgate University, 38.... Beriah Brown, for half a century engaged in newspaper work on the Pacific coast, 86.

February 9.—Col. Richard W. Thompson, the veteran Indiana politician, 90.

February 10.—Rev. William Henry Green, D.D., of Princeton, 75.

February 12.—Ex-Gov. Henry Horatio Wells, of Virginia, 77.... Dr. Edward L. Holmes, former president of Rush Medical College, Chicago, 72.

February 17.—Judge Richard A. Buckner, of Kentucky, 87.

February 18.—Miss Sarah Porter, head of the famous school for girls at Farmington, Conn., 86.



KENTUCKY.—From the *World* (New York).

SOME POLITICAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



KENTUCKY'S HIGHEST COURT OF APPEAL HOLDS A SHORT SESSION AND ADJOURNS.—From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



THE TEMPTATION OF ST. BRYAN.

COCKRAN: "Cast off free silver and I will support and vote for you."

ST. BRYAN: "Nay, nay, Bourke, my boy—the leopard cannot change its spots."—From the *Tribune* (New York).



PREPARING FOR A "HARMONY" DINNER.
BREER FOX: "Let's get together, Mr. Rooster.
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn).



THEORY AND PRACTICE.

AUNTY DEMOCRACY: "See, Mr. Bryan, I have brought two of the dear little Filipinos to see you."
BRYAN: "I can't see 'em, aunty—I can't see 'em! I'm too busy writing this resolution of sympathy for the poor, down-trodden patriots."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



MR. BRYAN IN THE EAST.
From the *Record* (Chicago).



A BIT OF MR. M'KELWAY'S SATIRE.

"Oh, Young Lochinvar has come out of the West.
On all the wide border his steed was the best."

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn).



ANYTHING TO OBLIGE MAJOR M'KINLEY—JUST A FRIENDLY SUGGESTION.

(This may be the reason for the approaching return of General Otis—at least a Washington dispatch says that the general is coming back to these States.)

From the *Chronicle* (Chicago).



THE SITUATION AT WASHINGTON.

HAY: "Me lud!"

PAUNCEFOTE: "Eh? What's that?"

MCKINLEY: "Me noble lud"

PAUNCEFOTE: "Now, what do you want? Another treaty?"

MCKINLEY: "Me lud, please deliver our consul's letters after you read them."

PAUNCEFOTE: "Oh! Certainly, my good fellow, certainly!"—From the *Journal* (New York).



ANOTHER ADMINISTRATION SCAPEGOAT.

The unhappy situation of Secretary Gage, who is said to be destined to follow Gen. Alger into retirement as a result of his dealings with a certain New York bank.

From the *Verdict* (New York).



THE ADMINISTRATION GUARDIAN.

"Who said investigation?"—From the *Verdict* (New York).

JOHN RUSKIN: POET, PAINTER, AND PROPHET.

BY LUCKING TAVENER.

OF all the brilliant Englishmen whose light made the mid-day of this century so glorious, Martineau and Ruskin alone remained to watch its subdued sunset. Gladstone, Tennyson, Browning, Carlyle, Darwin, and Turner passed away as its evening shadows began to fall. Perhaps no one, even of these, influenced the age more than did the subject of this sketch. Born on the eighth day of February, 1819, John Ruskin lived till January 20, 1900, among the beautiful hills and dales around Coniston Lake. Though his voice had been silent for years, his real influence is greater now than ever. This is due, however, to the fact that what he wrote and what he accomplished in his earlier years are better understood now than then. As is the nature of most men of genius, he had a full share of extravagances; but to-day these are taken for what they are worth, and the underlying truth of his teaching is being accepted. We are yet much too near him properly to assign his place among the great leaders of modern thought. Several results of his life-work, however, are undoubted. Orthodox art, literature, economy, and religion have each been shaken in his powerful grasp, and their respective professors dare not say that their departments are the same since Ruskin spoke. Public libraries, government schools, state workshops, and polytechnics are common institutions to-day, of which no one would deny the use; but John Ruskin was considerably laughed at when, in 1861, he advocated them. Though he would repudiate socialism, his political economy was built upon such broad principles that much of the socialistic tendency of to-day is based upon his economic teachings. As a writer his style was so beautiful and his workmanship so perfect that it has to be acknowledged that he is the greatest master of English prose. What, then, it may be asked, are the circumstances which molded this nineteenth-century genius?

I.—THE MAKING OF RUSKIN.

PARENTAGE AND EARLY TRAINING.

The father of John Ruskin was an upright and successful wine merchant, with an intense love of pictures and a decided religious bias. For business purposes he had to drive every year through the principal country roads of England, Wales,

and southern Scotland. On these expeditions the wine merchant was accompanied by his wife, and when John was four years of age he also went, and was very deeply impressed with what he saw. Not only was he thus enabled to see some of the loveliest bits of British scenery, but he also had an opportunity of examining the picture collections in most of the castles and mansions of our land. Thus while quite a child nature and art began to teach John Ruskin some of their greatest lessons. These drives also brought home to him some political and economic truths which he did not easily forget. "As soon as I could perceive any political truth at all," he says, "I perceived that it was probably much happier to live in a small house and have Warwick Castle to be astonished at than to live in Warwick Castle and have nothing to be astonished at." Still, these old historic buildings, with their art treasures and literary associations, had a great attraction for him, and he felt that "at all events it would not make Brunswick Square in the least more pleasantly habitable to pull Warwick Castle down."

His mother was a very pious though severe woman. She dedicated her son to the Christian ministry before he was born, and intended to make his training her life's mission, regarding him from the first as a "sacred trust, never as a plaything or a pastime." No child was ever treated more seriously than he, every detail of his education and early influence being the result of deliberate plans, all of which arrangement may have been very praiseworthy on the part of the mother, but it was far from enjoyable for the boy. Through this over-carefulness John Ruskin cannot be said to have had a childhood in the ordinary sense of the term. He had no toys, Mrs. Ruskin believing that the best teacher a boy could have was personal experience. That is the reason she left him to his own resources for amusement, compelling him to think out things for himself. As a baby he cried for the bright copper kettle which was on the fire. He was allowed to touch it in order that he might know such things were not intended to be played with. As a boy he found recreation in fancying people among the pattern of the parlor carpet, watching the water-carts filled from a street pipe on the pavement opposite, and inventing things with a bunch of keys.

His mother was his only educational guide till he was fourteen years of age, watching him every moment of his waking hours, punishing him severely if he cried, disobeyed, or fell, and never on any account giving him outward expression of maternal love, though her affection for him must have been great.

She allowed him to choose his own reading for week-days, but on Sundays he was restricted to the Bible, "Robinson Crusoe," and the "Pilgrim's Progress." His own choice was made from Scott, Homer, and Byron.

The father desired John to be poet laureate, but Mrs. Ruskin had planned that her boy should be an evangelical bishop. His mother's evangelicalism was not attractive to her son, and as she had a sister who was even more evangelical than herself, John Ruskin did not grow up to be an evangelical clergyman.

Though he was the son of a wine merchant, he was an author born. Before he had entered his teens he was writing descriptions in prose and verse of every scene through which he passed, and illustrating them with Turner-like vignettes drawn with a fine crow-quill pen in imitation of the delicate engravings which were issued with Rogers' "Italy." His first book was produced when he was seven years of age, and consisted of a story in imitation of Miss Edgeworth. The MS. occupied three volumes and was entirely written in characters of type. A specimen of his early verse must be given. It is dated January 1, 1828. I select this one because it was chosen by himself, when a man, as representative of his early poetry, and reprinted by him in "Athena." It describes a frosty day in Glen Farg; and though the writer was only nine years of age, this childish rhyme is a prophecy of "Modern Painters" and "The Stones of Venice."

Papa, how pretty those icicles are,
That are seen so near, that are seen so far;
Those dropping waters that come from the rocks,
And many a hole, like the haunt of a fox.
That silvery stream that runs babbling along,
Making a murmuring, dancing song.
Those trees that stand waving upon the rock's side,
And men that like specters among them glide;
And waterfalls that are heard from far,
And come in sight when very near.
And the water-wheel that turns so slowly round,
Grinding the corn that requires to be ground;
And mountains at a distance seen,
And rivers winding through the plain,
And quarries with their ragged stones,
And the wind among them moans.

So precious a treasure as this boy could not be trusted to the tender mercies of a public school. Tutors were accordingly engaged for home training, and these were very carefully watched by the anxious and ambitious mother. When I

mention that the Rev. Canon Dale, Copley Fielding, and Harding were among these, it will be seen that the selection was of no mean order. That two such artists were chosen is proof also that the father considered the fine arts a specialty in his son's education. Mr. Ruskin, senior, was an amateur painter himself and possessed a very fine collection of pictures.

In due course John Ruskin went to Oxford. He entered Christ Church as a gentleman commoner and, as would be expected from such a youth, paid very diligent heed to his studies. In 1839 he carried off the Newdigate prize for English poetry. The poem consisted of a description of the cave temples of Elephanta peopled with the deities of Hindoo mythology. These are represented as struggling with the powers of Christianity; the ultimate downfall of idolatry and the complete triumph of Christianity are predicted. He published this poem in 1840, two years before he took his M.A.

RUSKIN AND TURNER.

It was while Ruskin was a student at Oxford that the art world was startled by the work of Turner. It is, of course, idle to speculate what course events would have taken if something had not happened which did happen. But the whole of Mr. Ruskin's after life and work hangs entirely on the influence of Turner's pictures upon his mind during his Oxford days. To remove Turner from Ruskin's influences is to render his life a blank; consequently it is impossible to guess in the remotest degree what the "Graduate of Oxford" would have been if he had not seen Turner's pictures and read the strongly worded condemnation of that artist in *Blackwood's Magazine*. Other criticisms had been given, and John Ruskin had taken no notice. This one seemed more than he could let pass. He therefore attempted to answer it in an article of similar length, but found that it was a longer matter to defend against attack than to attack. He considered his article inadequate and did not send it to press, but extended it to pamphlet size, intending to call it "Turner and the Ancients." To be as thorough and accurate as possible, he found it necessary to go to the continental galleries. He wintered in Rome and spent much time in other cities of Italy and northern Europe, and included his fresh impressions in his work, publishing it as a portly volume under the title of "Modern Painters." This was in 1843, when the author was only twenty-one. It was not long before the second volume followed, consisting of the matter collected in the Italian tours and crowded out of the first. It was mainly occupied with consider-

ations of nature and the quality of beauty, but, incidentally, it introduced to Englishmen two Italian artists who were then almost unknown in England, but have since become favorites—Fra Angelico and Tintoret. While writing the third, fourth, and fifth volumes of "Modern Painters" many other subjects engaged the author's attention, but most of these were the outcome of the preparation for his main work. The careful and elaborate comparisons which Mr. Ruskin made between the works of artists and the aspects of nature occupied too much space, and so easily grouped themselves under different heads that

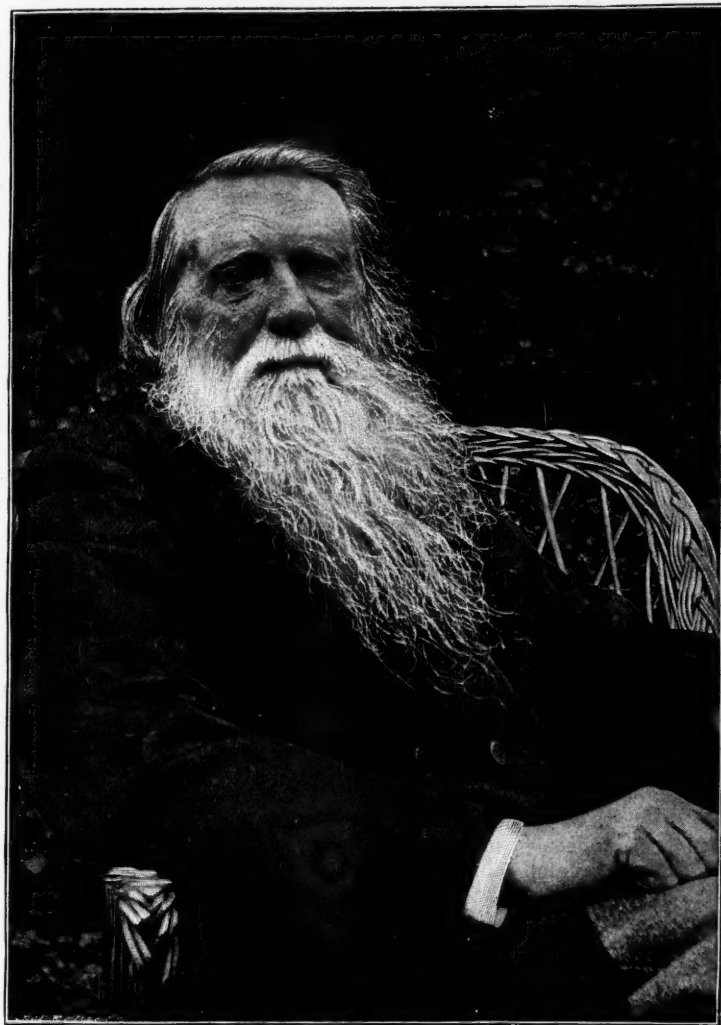
they readily suggested other and separate publications. The Venetian notes were issued as "The Stones of Venice;" the architectural chapters as "The Seven Lamps of Architecture;" the Florentine sketches as "Mornings in Florence;" and the botanical notes, chiefly made in English lanes and on Swiss mountains, were brought out under the title of "Proserpina."

Thus the English-speaking race has to thank the anonymous author of the forgotten article in *Blackwood's Magazine* indirectly for its very finest specimens of English prose, for it was through his venomous attack on Turner's pictures that we

had revealed to us the greatest master of modern prose literature. Speaking of the writing of the book, Mr. Ruskin said: "It has been written of necessity. I saw an injustice done and tried to remedy it. I heard falsehood taught and was compelled to deny it. Nothing else was possible to me."

THE INFLUENCE OF THOMAS CARLYLE.

The influence of Turner in the building of the character of our subject, great though it was, gave way to the stronger power of Thomas Carlyle. The vigorous writings of the Chelsea sage had been frightening the lovers of peace and quietude with bombshell-like explosions in the political, social, economic, and business arenas of English life and thought. All men were more or less moved by them. Some violently hated the writer and others as violently worshiped him. Among the latter was John Ruskin, who came very early under the magic spell of the author of "Sartor Resartus" and "Past and Present." For years this influence had been telling upon him, but when he had arrived at the age of forty, so completely was his attitude changed that he wished he could undo all the work he had already done and begin afresh on entirely



JOHN RUSKIN.

(From a photograph taken in 1897.)

different lines. It might truly be said to have been Ruskin's new birth. Mr. Collingwood says in his "Life and Work of John Ruskin:"

Until he was forty Mr. Ruskin was a writer on art; after that his art was secondary to ethics. Until he was forty he was a believer in English Protestantism; afterward he could not reconcile current beliefs with the facts of life as he saw them, and had to reconstruct his creed from the foundations.

John Ruskin was far too earnest a man to allow such a conversion to operate in matters of faith only. If it was of any value, it must operate in the minutest details of life. For years he had been getting annoyed that people were praising his books on account of their pretty and picturesque pieces of writing, instead of obeying his teaching. It was therefore no hasty resolve that made him wish to withdraw "Modern Painters" and publish some economic writings about which there could be no mistake as to their purport. In these he would refrain from making beautiful paragraphs. He would speak the utmost practical truth he knew. Accordingly he allowed "Modern Painters," "The Stones of Venice," and "The Seven Lamps of Architecture" to get out of print. Not that he disagreed with those writings, but that he now considered them of much less consequence than the economic doctrines he had learned from Carlyle.

It must not be imagined that the teaching contained in Mr. Ruskin's books on art was contrary to the gospel of Carlyle and the more practical work of his own later writings. Carlyle's books and Ruskin's art works were making for the same goal, but had vastly different starting-points. Carlyle sorrowed over the sins, shams, and strifes of city life, and with strong and sarcastic language urged people to come out of Babel and be true, pure, and united. Ruskin gloried in the beauty, purity, and unity of nature, and tried, in smooth and beautiful sentences, to persuade men to put in practice the spirit found there as the only true principle of life. But Ruskin felt that Carlyle's method was more direct and his gospel deeper, consequently he adopted it. The action taken on the perception of the supposed greater truth was similar in each case. It will be remembered that when Carlyle had been so deeply pained at what he had seen of life in London and Edinburgh, he retired to the lonely moor of Craigenputtock quietly to think out the problems raised by such experiences, and there work out his thoughts in "Sartor Resartus." Ruskin, in his turn, retired from the bustle of the big and busy metropolis to the silent rocks of Switzerland to ponder over the same weighty problems, giving to the world as a result "Unto This Last" and "Munera Pulveris."

II.—RUSKIN THE REFORMER.

PERSONAL REFORMATION.

One of the earliest hints of his disapproval of the relations existing between poverty and wealth arises from his contemplation of the luxury possible to himself after his father's death. In "Præterita" he says:

I have round me here at Denmark Hill seven acres of leasehold ground. I pay £50 a year ground rent and £250 a year in wages to my gardeners, besides expenses in fuel for hot-houses and the like. And for this sum of £300 odd a year I have some peas and strawberries in summer, some camellias and azaleas in winter, and good cream and a quiet place to walk in all the year round. Of the strawberries, cream, and peas I eat more than is good for me, sometimes, of course, obliging my friends with a superfluous pottle or pint. The camellias and azaleas stand in the anteroom of my library, and everybody says when they come in, "How pretty!" and my young lady friends have leave to gather what they like to put in their hair when they are going to balls. Meantime, outside of my fenced seven acres numbers of people are starving, many are dying of too much gin, and many of their children dying of too little milk.

At the time of writing this Mr. Ruskin was a rich man. His father had left him £157,000, besides some property in houses and land and a very valuable collection of pictures. It is evident from the extract just quoted that the wealth did not make him happy. The problem of the poor was continually upon his mind, and his conscience forced him to the conclusion that he had no right to enjoy this wealth, as he had not earned it.

But what was to be done? He could not prevent his father's bequest. He had possession of the money, and he could not disclaim it. But he was determined he would not reap the benefit of it. So he looked about him for cases of need, which, it is needless to say, he soon found. Among his own relatives many thousand pounds were distributed; much of the money went in substantial art and educational gifts to Oxford and Sheffield; and the last £3,000 was spent on those visits to the continent which proved so useful in his later work. Perhaps few will admit this to be the wisest way of disposing of his wealth, but every one will admit that if wisdom was not shown earnestness was. His faith was that no man had a right to eat food or enjoy pleasure which was not the reward of work done with his own hands and brain. None but the most brave and earnest would accept a creed like this, especially if it was first of all to act upon self. By thus attempting to live out his creed he had made it impossible to live without teaching, writing, or otherwise working.



THE HOUSE AT HERNE HILL WHERE RUSKIN WAS BORN IN 1819.

SOCIAL EXPERIMENTS.

And what is more, he had determined that the sons of the aristocracy who came within the range of his influence should know what real work meant. Not only did he think that it would be healthy for the lads themselves, but it would help to dispose of the prevalent thought that manual labor was a very easy thing and required no skill to accomplish it.

Accordingly, when he was Slade Professor at Oxford his road-making expeditions were as popular as his drawing classes. Besides road-making parties for Oxford, he organized gutter-sweeping gangs for St. Giles's, London; and before he began such organizing he himself learned of the navy and the scavenger. "Half of my power," says he, "of ascertaining facts of any kind connected with the arts is in my stern habit of doing the thing with my own hands till I know its difficulty."

The same principle actuated him when, before he led his undergraduates to the new road at Hinksey, he went stone-breaking on his own account. His own words are:

I sat with an iron-masked stone-breaker on his heap to break stones beside the London road, just under Ifley Hill, till I knew how to advise my too impetuous pupils to effect their purposes in that matter, instead of breaking the heads of their hammers off (a serious item in our daily expenses).

Similarly, when he had determined to employ

his gang of aristocratic scavengers for eight hours each day to keep the gutters between the British Museum and Seven Dials as clean as a ship's deck, he made the experiment first himself:

I learned from an Irish street-crossing sweeper what he could teach me of sweeping, and again and again I swept bits of St. Giles's foot pavements, showing my corps of subordinates how to finish into the depths of gutter.

As was natural, the public generally ridiculed these experiments as silly. But ridicule, and public opinion for that matter, had very little effect upon Mr. Ruskin. The degradation of the toilers and

the sufferings of the poor had sunk deeply into his soul, and he was determined to see if anything could be done. He would experiment again and in another direction. He perceived that the workingman's rent was the great item in his expenditure which, more than anything else, kept him poor. Mr. Ruskin therefore set up as lodging-house keeper in a London slum and tried to provide a decent home accommodation at a moderate rate. The property in the neighborhood was yielding its landlord 12 per cent., but the new landlord was content with 5. At another time he opened a provision shop to sell to the poor a good tea at the lowest possible price. This was very well as local philanthropy, but it was not of far-reaching good.

A WEAVING ENTERPRISE.

Again, the conditions under which woolen goods were manufactured made him so indignant that he bought a number of hand looms for certain old cottagers, and formed a little center of industry in the lovely English lake district, thinking that old people should have easy and pleasant work, and that this should be done, if possible, in the midst of beautiful surroundings. This concern is still flourishing, and the *Daily News* said some time ago that the only drawback to it was that these homespun woolen goods, unlike the machine-made articles, would never wear out.

UNIQUE PUBLISHING.

The publication of Mr. Ruskin's books is an experiment which should not be omitted. It is well known that the author was his own publisher for many years, but the details of the concern are not generally known. There was no special friction between the Messrs. Smith & Elder and the author of "Modern Painters," which led to the change. It was a matter of principle, far deeper than could possibly be involved in a passing dispute. It was simply that the author felt that the men who actually produced books did not get their proper share of the rewards and that the public did not get the full value of their outlay. And the reason, he felt, was that too great a proportion was swallowed up in the transit from author to public. Therefore it seemed clear that the remedy should be found in the establishment of closer contact between writer and reader. Here was his problem, and he resolved to experiment.

Fortunately Mr. Ruskin had discovered a man after his own heart on whom he could rely for help. This man was a workingman student he had met in his drawing class at Great Ormond Street, in whom he thought he saw possibilities of better work. He had at once taken him in hand, and later business developments have shown the instinct to have been a right one. It was in 1854 that the professor and his future publisher first met, and during the three succeeding years their relationship was of the closest kind. George Allen was taught engraving and etching by Mr. Le Keux, who had done some exquisite work for Mr. Ruskin, and then some mezzotint instruction was given by

Thomas Lupton, who had been engraver to Turner.

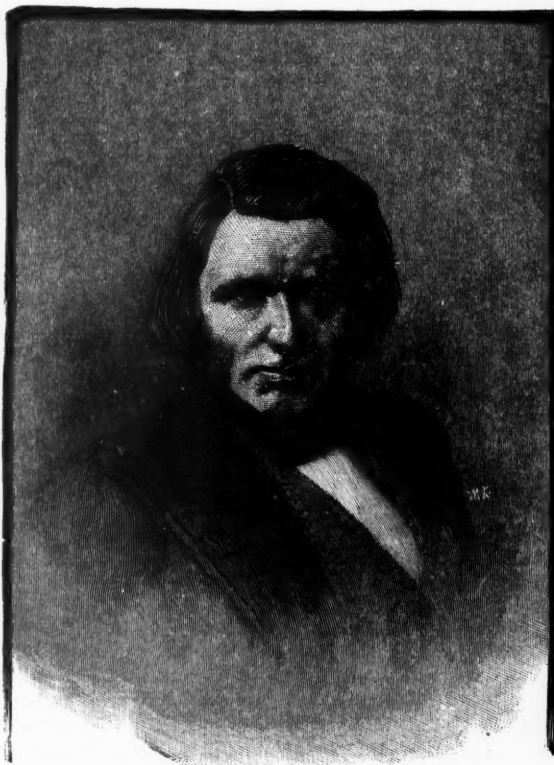
Having obtained his engraver and otherwise useful man, the next thing was to get his printing press and make arrangements for binding. These were well established in the beautiful and quiet village of Orington, in Kent, and the master personally presided over the works for several years. It was a gigantic undertaking, and critics laughed at the publishing business "planted in the middle of a country field;" but it became a phenomenal success.

The first book issued was "Fors Clavigera," and an early number of that work contained the following explanation:

It costs me £10 to print one thousand, and £5 more to give you a picture, and a penny off my sevenpence to send you the book; a thousand sixpences are £25; when you have bought a thousand "Fors" of me I shall therefore have £5 for my trouble, and my single shopman, Mr. Allen, £5 for his; we won't work for

less, either of us. And I mean to sell all my large books henceforward in the same way, well printed, well bound, and at a fixed price; and the trade may charge a proper and acknowledged profit for their trouble in retailing the book. Then the public will know what they are about, and so will tradesmen. I, the first producer, answer, to the best of my power, for the quality of the book—paper, binding, eloquence, and all; the retail dealer charges what he ought to charge openly; and if the public do not choose to give it they can't get the book. That is what I call legitimate business.

In an article of this kind it is impossible to give minute details of such a department of the subject as this publishing concern. It must suffice to mention that in an interview published in the *Pall Mall Gazette* for March 23, 1887, Mr. George Allen stated that he had £27,000 worth of goods stored away in a shed at the side of the



JOHN RUSKIN.

(From a photograph taken in 1866.)

back garden. After that the business steadily increased, and when such big undertakings as the production of a new edition of "Modern Painters" and "The Stones of Venice" were proceeded with, the accommodation of the Kentish village was found insufficient, and a London house had to be opened. The main work, however, of the making of the books of Mr. Ruskin continued to be done amid the pleasant surroundings of the village of Orpington.

ECONOMIC REFORMATION.

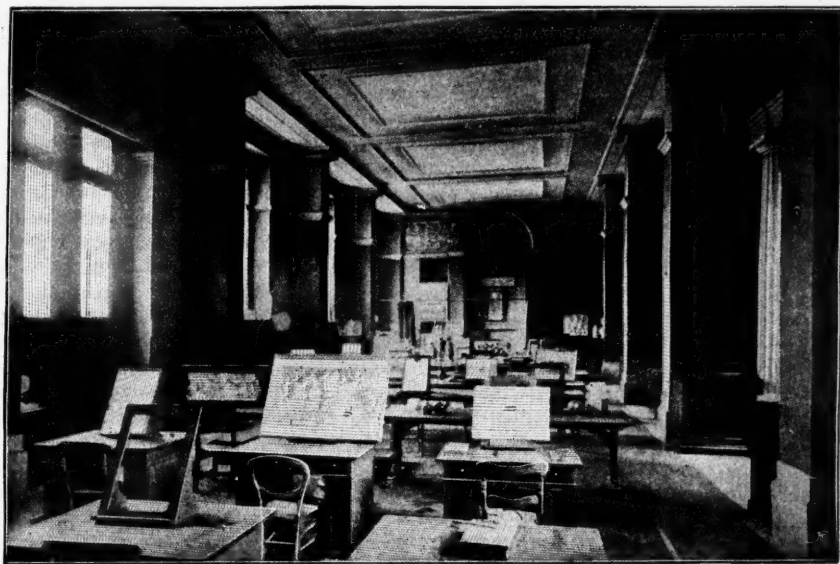
Most of these efforts at reformation we have mentioned were of a local character, but each experiment added its quota to the experience of Mr. Ruskin. He had also studied the professed leaders of political economy, and had been always on the lookout for facts and thoughts in this direction during the progress of his many other varied studies. He had now abandoned his art writing and devoted himself to advocating the establishment of government, trade, and society on sounder and more righteous lines. The causes of most of the evils, he thought, were to be traced to misconceptions of the meaning of such terms as wealth, value, and political economy. He thought that if the truth of these important things were known a great difference would soon arise in the relations between rich and poor. He therefore did his level best to teach the truth on these subjects. "Unto This Last" is an attempt in this direction. It consists of four chapters, which were originally published in the *Cornhill Magazine* for 1860, when Thackeray was editor. Two chapters were so violently reprobated by the readers of that magazine that the editor begged the writer to desist. The book is an attack upon the science of political economy. The author declares the so-called science is not political economy at all, but mercantile economy. *Polis*, from which we derive our word

"political," means the state. Political economy should have for its end the good of the whole community; but the orthodox science of that name makes the merchant rich and has no regard for other members of the state.

The chief doctrine of this science is said to be: "Buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest." In commercial circles it will be admitted that there is no safer doctrine than this. But see what Mr. Ruskin says of it:

So far as I know there is not in history record of anything so disgraceful to the human intellect as the modern idea that the commercial text, "Buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest," represents, or under any circumstances could represent, an available principle of national economy. Buy in the cheapest market? Yes; but what made your market cheap? Charcoal may be cheap among your roof timbers when your house and home has been made a ruin by fire. Bricks may be cheap in your streets after an earthquake. But would you therefore say that fire and earthquake are national benefits, because you can buy things cheap after their reign of havoc and destruction? And you can rest assured when an article is cheap that behind it, if you could but tear away the veil of commercialism, there would be seen some destructive fire of human joy or some earthquake of human happiness. Sell in the dearest? Yes, truly; but what made your market dear? You sold your bread well to-day: was it to a dying man who gave his last coin for it and will need bread no more; or to a rich man who to-morrow will buy your farm over your head; or to a soldier on his way to pillage the bank in which you have put your savings?

Again, Mr. Ruskin maintains that we do not even know what it means to be rich. One side



RUSKIN'S LECTURE-ROOM AT THE TYLORIAN, OXFORD.



JOHN RUSKIN.

only of the question do we know. "Rich" is a relative word—it implies its opposite; just as north implies south, rich implies poor. It is impossible under existing conditions for everybody to be rich. If everybody had enough—and there is enough for everybody—there would be no poor, and there would be no reason for anybody to be rich. But now, if a man is rich, some one is or some people are poor in consequence. Says Ruskin: "The force of the guinea you have in your pocket depends wholly upon the default of the guinea in your neighbor's pocket. If he did not want it it would be of no use to you; the degree of power it possesses depends accurately upon the need or desire he has for it—and the art of making yourself rich, in the ordinary mercantile economist's sense, is therefore equally and necessarily the art of keeping your neighbor poor."

The true wealth of a nation, then, is not to be estimated by the riches of a few merchants, whose riches might mean widespread poverty, but in the general well-being of the mass of the people. This view is the one our author insists upon as the true one for wealth. Wealth means well-being—well; and the nation which can and

does support the largest number of healthy and happy people is the wealthiest nation. It can in no way be a benefit to a nation to increase the riches of a few at the sacrifice of the common health, comfort, or happiness.

The work of the government of a nation is, therefore, to determine the noblest type of man possible and to steadfastly aim at maintaining the largest possible number of persons of that class. Money from this point of view is to be considered merely as a system of counters by which labor is exchanged for the means of living. When accumulated, it is mostly at the cost of life—or by the hastening of deaths.

Such were some of the conclusions contained in "Unto This Last" and "Munera Pulveris." The principles involved were so sweeping that commercial men and politicians were amazed and asked what the author was driving at. Accordingly, in the preface of "Unto This Last" he summarized his practical suggestions.

First, he would have training schools all over the country, established by the government, maintained at government cost, and under government discipline. They should be free to every child born in the country, and in them each should be taught (1) the laws of health, (2) gentleness and justice, and (3) the calling by which the scholar is afterward to live.

In the next place he would have government manufactories and workshops for the production and sale of every necessary of life and for the exercise of every useful art. Good material only to be used and proper wages always given.

Thirdly, anybody out of employment should be received at the nearest government school, where personal examination should be held, then work given of a kind the person was fit for. If ignorance be the cause of lack of employment, the person should be taught; if laziness, then work should be found from the class of work which most men shrink from, painful and degrading, but necessary—such as mining and other work of danger; but in every case the utmost care should be taken to render the work as little dangerous as possible. Due wages should be allowed—deducting the cost of compulsion—these wages to be at the workman's command as soon as he has come to sounder mind respecting the laws of employment. When sickness is the cause the sick one should be tended.

Fourthly, for the aged destitute comfort and home should be provided, which provision should carry with it no disgrace to the receiver when the misfortune has not come through guilt.

These suggestions appear quite rational to us in 1900, but they came as a great shock to the readers of 1860. The capitalists urged that Mr.

Ruskin was considering the workman's side only, and that the workman would squander higher wages if he had them. Mr. Ruskin replied that whatever disposition the workman had, the responsibility rested with those in better ranks of society. In the chapter called "*Ad Valorem*" in "*Unto This Last*" occurs this passage:

Alas! it is not meat of which the refusal is cruellest or to which the claim is validest. The life is more than meat. The rich not only refuse food to the poor—they refuse wisdom, they refuse virtue, they refuse salvation. Ye sheep without a shepherd, it is not the pasture that has been shut from you, but the Presence. Meat! Perhaps your right to that may be pleadable, but other rights have to be pleaded first. Claim your crumbs from the table if you will, but claim them as children, not as dogs; claim your right to be fed, but claim more loudly your right to be holy, perfect, and pure.

III.—RUSKIN THE ARTIST.

HIS DRAWINGS.

The world knows John Ruskin first and foremost as an art critic, and it has a right to ask what of practical work he has done to prove his competency to criticise. Surely we are not asking too much of any critic when we desire to know whether he has the necessary knowledge to enable him to produce works of a kind he criticises. No one will dispute Mr. Ruskin's knowledge of the theory and history of art. It is because of his thoroughness under these heads that we take as gospel his teaching with regard to the schools of art of the past. But when he ventures to tell us where living artists fail and succeed, we have a right to know whether he can himself draw and paint. Is he an artist as well as an art critic? An answer in the affirmative comes from everything he has done. He is an artist in every fiber of him. Even when he deals with political economy the artist is seen in his using the real materials at present around him to evolve therefrom an ideal for the future; and every one of his readers will readily admit that he is a consummate artist in words, while the water-color pictures and pencil drawings he has made prove that if he had done more work of this kind he would have risen to the front rank in the painting world.



THE ROAD AT HINCKSEY, OXFORD.

(From a drawing by one of Ruskin's pupils.)

The making of his books of necessity took too much of his time and attention to allow this to be accomplished. The museums of Sheffield and Oxford, however, give ample evidence of the richness of his art quality and the delicacy of his handling, while his beautiful and poetic illustrations to "*Modern Painters*," "*Seven Lamps of Architecture*," and "*Proserpina*" prove what he

could have done had he so desired. An exhibition of his drawings was held in the rooms of the Fine Art Society in 1878. The *Artist* for July of last year published a collection of eighteen specimens of his work, and a portfolio was issued some time ago by George Allen called "*Studies in Both Arts*." All these drawings are splendid examples of his own theories. They show both broad Turner-like treatment of landscape and exquisite detail work of flowers and brambles, together with glorious color effects on such subjects as a stranded crab all wet with seawater and glowing in the strong sunlight of a sandy beach, and the marvelous blending of tints in the plumage of a partridge. The superficial student will from this be in doubt as to whether Mr. Ruskin belongs, as an artist, to the impressionist school or to its opposite—those who labor on detail and finish. His landscapes are very impressionist, while his studies in brambles and rocks, for instance, are done with the utmost care precision, and attention to detail. The reason is that he is above the narrowness of any school, and perceives partial truth alike in impressionism and in pre-Raphaelism. His principle is that when the object of a picture is gained without microscopic painting, it should be considered complete. All work must be as direct and simple as possible. If many pieces of finely worked-up secondary details tend to take away the force of the meaning of the composition, they should be avoided. For the broad landscapes, then, bold treatment is required, but for foreground, flower, or such like studies no care over detail can be too great. Consequently some of his pictures would bring delight to the one school, while just as many could be found to please the other. Hence it is that the pre-Raphaelites considered Mr. Ruskin their champion, while the friends of Mr. Whistler, so widely different, thought they were showing the world how splen-

didly the critic's theories worked. Mr. Ruskin, however, criticised Rossetti and Holman Hunt, and also used language in describing the work of Mr. Whistler strong enough to induce the latter gentleman to enter upon a libel action. On looking at many drawings by Mr. Whistler, one is somewhat surprised at the animosity of Mr. Ruskin to the painter. Mr. Whistler has certainly mastered the problem of directness. He knows how to express subtle effect with the least possible labor. A few strokes of the brush or lines of the etching-needle made by his hand convey extraordinary expression. All his work reveals the power of conveying the utmost meaning by the simplest means. He does not feel that his work lies in the direction of objects that require much detail, and this lack, I assume, is sufficient reason to have kept Mr. Ruskin out of sympathy with the artist's work.

HIS PEN-PICTURES.

Mr. Frederic Harrison wrote in the *Nineteenth Century*:

The world has long been of one mind as to the beauty of Ruskin's writing; but even yet full justice has not been rendered to his consummate mastery over our English tongue—it has not been put high enough, and some of its unique qualities have not been perceived. In certain qualities, in given ways, and in some rarer passages of his, Ruskin not only surpasses every contemporary writer of prose (which, indeed, is obvious enough), but he calls out of our English tongue notes more strangely beautiful and inspiring than any ever yet issued from that instrument. No writer of prose before or since has ever rolled forth such mighty fantasies, or reached such pathetic melodies in words, or composed long books in one continued strain of limpid grace. . . . It cannot be denied that Ruskin, especially in his earlier works, is too often obtrusively luscious, that his images are often lyrical, set in too

profuse and gorgeous a mosaic. Be it so. But he is always perfectly, triumphantly clear, absolutely free from affected euphuism, never laboriously "precious," never grotesque, never eccentric. His besetting sins as a master of speech may be summed up in his passion for profuse imagery and delight in an almost audible melody of words.

This is no fit place to print any of the master's exquisite word-pictures. So beautiful are the descriptions of the sea approach to Venice, St. Mark's, Holman Hunt's pictures, the mountain scenery of Switzerland, of Turner the man and the pictures from that artist's brush that they have been reprinted again and again. It goes without saying that in his beauty of word-painting, in his accentuation of the view from his own standpoint, he sometimes became extravagant. To say this is only to say that he is an artist. But there was a danger in this, as he found. In after years he repented that the beauty of his language caused him to be regarded as artist when he wanted to be regarded as teacher. In the glamour of his intense coloring the vital truth had been lost, and when he discovered it he upbraided his readers for paying more attention to his pretty sentences than heeding the lessons he tried to teach.

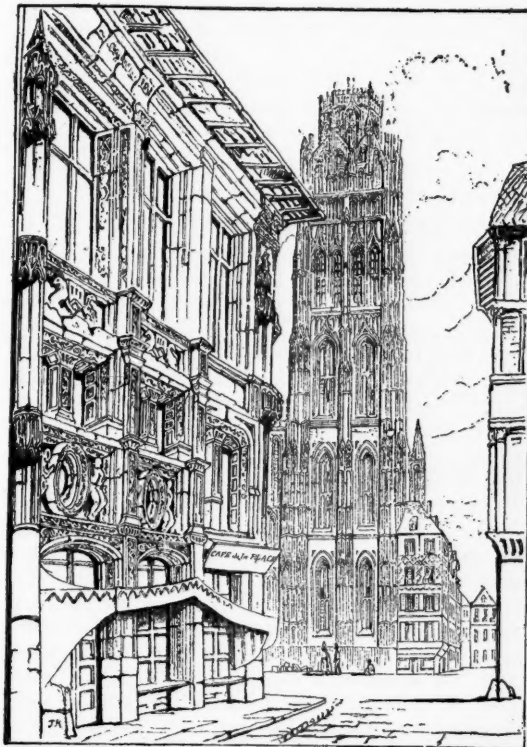
"All my life," he once said—"all my life I have been talking to the people, and they have listened not to what I had to say, but to how I said it; they have cared only for the manner, not the matter. For them the kernel is nothing; it is the shell that attracts."

He is correct when he hints that the power of picturesque writing has been with him all his life. We have seen it in his juvenile rhymes, and it is conspicuous in the letters he addressed to his friends from college. I must make one quotation:

Have you ever sat meditatively in a pastry cook's shop . . . to watch the pale faces and sunken eyes which pass lingeringly before the window and fall upon the consumers of the fruits of the earth, half in prayer and half in accusation? They have no conception of the meaning of the various devices for exciting and pampering the gorged appetite; they never tasted such things in their lives; they are so used to hunger that they do not know what *taste* means! But they gaze as they would on some strange paradise when they see the shadows of unknown delights—calls upon senses whose possession they scarcely knew. Have you watched them turning away, sick with famine, weak with desire, with the mild sorrowful look of subdued reproach at the fixed features and hard brows within (for they are mere children and have not learned their lessons of re-



A VIEW OF "OLD MAN" AS SEEN FROM BRANTWOOD.



THE CATHEDRAL SPIRE, ROUEN.

(From a pencil drawing by John Ruskin in 1835.)

bellion against God and man), and then reflected that there was but the width and weight of a penny between them and the door? Have you seen some less pitiable urchin, one who has some slight conception of what is meant by the word "tart," pause before the "refuse" chair at the door to eye the variegated, black-burned tin tray, with its arranged square of elliptical raspberry tarts—the slightest, the very shadow of an amicable adherence existing between them and the tray by means of the rich distillation of crimson, coagulated juice and their cramped, undulating edge of paste, shaded with soft brown by the touch of the considerate fire, sinking gradually beneath the transparent, granular, ruby-tinted expanse of unimaginably ambrosial jam, and considered that a penny would enable you to sever that juicy connection with the tin, and send the boy away with bright eyes and elastic step and mouth open with wonder, silent with gratitude, watering with anticipation?

IV.—RUSKIN THE ART CRITIC.

It is obvious that an art critic in the habit of using language so intense would be sure to make strong friends and bitter enemies. The school of art which worked according to his principles would certainly receive from his pen high commendation, while those who did not heed those

principles would be strongly, if not violently, condemned. Artists did not look with any degree of delight upon his work, but feared the coming of his criticism, while the public paid so much attention to his writing as to lead the *Daily Chronicle* to say that even "a cold word from his pen could send back an important picture unsold to the painter's studio," and *Mr. Punch* voiced the artist's lament in these words:

I paints and I paints,
Hears no complaints,
And sells before I'm dry;
Till savage Ruskin
Sticks his tusk in,
And nobody will buy.

Several incidents are recorded of the effects of these awkward relations between artists and the critic. For instance, Mr. Ruskin had criticised, in his fearless and frank way, a picture of a well-known painter, who was very much grieved at the effect. The writer, on hearing of the sorrow, wrote to the artist to say that he regretted he could not speak more favorably of the picture, but hoped it would make no difference in their friendship. The artist, it is said, wrote in reply the following note:

DEAR RUSKIN: Next time I meet you I shall knock you down, but I hope it will make no difference in our friendship.

His criticism, besides the comments on old masters included in his large books, often took the form of a letter addressed to the *Times* newspaper, dealing with some picture which had especially arrested his attention in the annual exhibitions; but usually the things he had to say upon the work of modern men were conveyed to the public in the form of a shilling pamphlet called "Notes on Some of the Principal Pictures Now Being Exhibited in the Rooms of the Royal Academy." These were begun in 1855 and came to a sudden stop in 1860, the reason for the stoppage being the libel action already alluded to and based upon the strong criticism contained in these "Notes." Mr. Whistler gained the day and was awarded one farthing damages. Mr. Ruskin found that his friends had paid all his costs, and everybody considered the verdict was a moral victory for the critic, but he refused to continue the "Notes" for years. When, in 1875, they were resumed, the author made reference to the incident in the preface. He said:

Among various minor but collectively sufficient reasons for the cessation of these notes, one of the chief was the exclamation of a young artist moving in good society, authentically, I doubt not, reported to me: "D—the fellow! Why doesn't he back his friends?"

Then he goes on to say that he never has used



JOHN RUSKIN.

(From a photograph taken about twelve years ago.)

his power of criticism to such end, "but," he continues, "I write now and have always written, so far as I am able, what may show that there is a fixed criterion of separation between right art and wrong."

It is certain from this 1875 issue that the circumstances had not made him abate his purpose or soften his words. In that number he described the character of the Royal Academy exhibition as "nothing more than a large colored illustrated *Times* folded in saloons." The classic painters are severely dealt with. He praises the artistic skill and classic learning shown by Mr. Alma Tadema's "Sculpture Gallery," but

says that "the artistic skill has succeeded with all its objects in the degree of their unimportance. The piece of silver plate is painted best, the griffin bas-relief it stands on second best, the statue of the empress worse than the griffin, and the living personages worse than the statue."

V.—RELIGIOUS DEVELOPMENT.

As I have already exceeded the space allowed me, the religious development and the personality of our subject must be but slightly sketched. A hint has already been given of the strict Puritanic character of his early discipline and training, with its intense belief in the inspiration of every word of the Bible and strict observance of the Sabbath. John Ruskin grew into manhood under this influence, but received several shocks which broadened his faith considerably. The first I find record of is that received in the monk's cell of the Grande Chartreuse. He visited the Carthusian monastery with his father, and his love for nature's sublime beauty being so deep and religious, he expected to find the monks who lived among the beautiful scenery of mountainous Switzerland in a state of much deeper religious fervor than would be found in city life. But the monk who showed the Ruskins round seemed tired of the place and its surroundings. The party paused at the window of one of the cells, and John said something in the style of "Modern Painters" about the effect of the scene outside upon religious minds, whereupon, with a curl of the lip, the monk said: "I've not come here to look at mountains." In "Præterita" we read: "The monk's speech was of significance enough to alter the course of religious thought in me afterward forever."

Later on we know what sympathy he had with the general work of the Working Men's College, but he was too narrow for the religion its founders professed. He attended a Bible class conducted by F. D. Maurice, and described that clergyman's handling of Jael's assassination of her guest as religious infidelity, and described Maurice as "by nature puzzle-headed and, though in a beautiful manner, wrong-headed."

Though the broad views of Kingsley and Maurice did not satisfy him, he was no more pleased in attending a low-church evangelical meeting in the drawing-room at the Earl of Ducie's in Belgrave Square. He clung to the old Scotch Puritanism of his mother, and tried to persuade himself that the religion of Bunyan, Knox, and Dr. Watts was perfectly in harmony with music, painting, and sculpture, which were so much part of his nature.

Through his works can be traced a growing

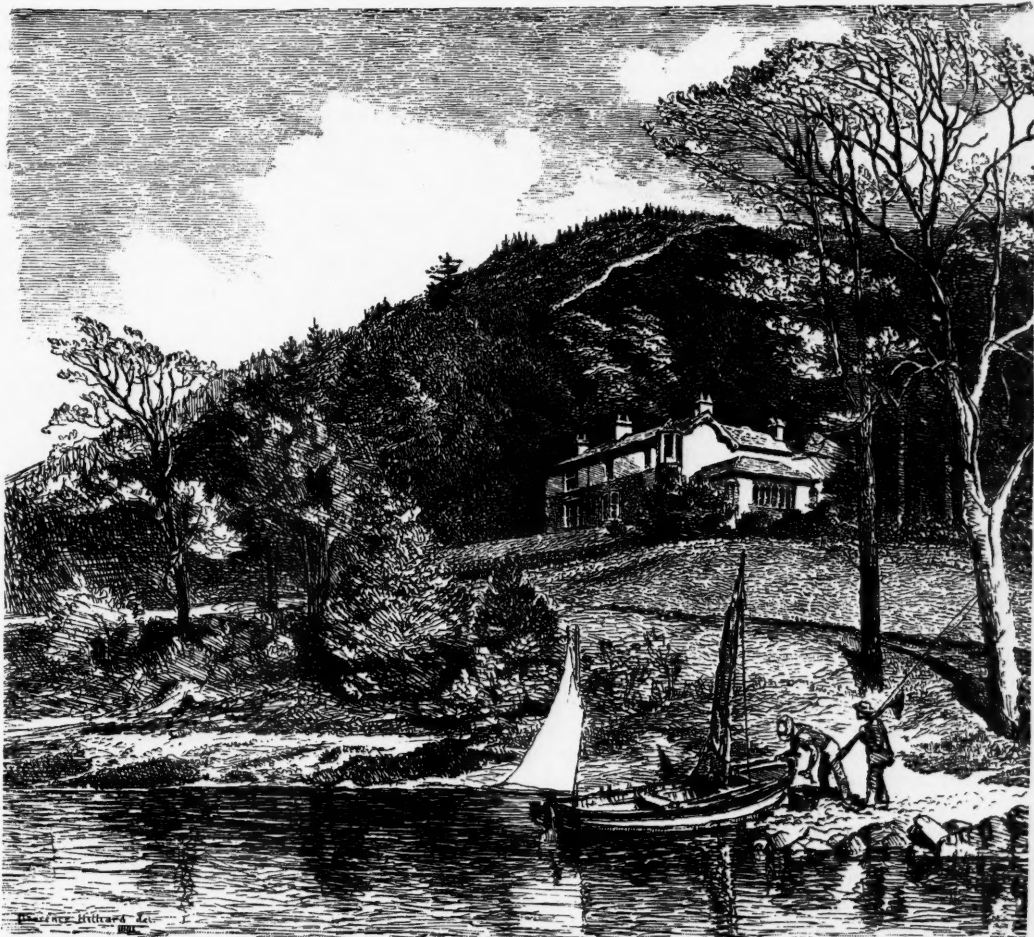
breadth toward a catholicity of thought which could find no expression in any creed of any sect. After his Protestantism died he never joined the Church of Rome, though many rumors became current to the effect that such a thing might be looked for. But he denied the rumors. He loved beautiful services, but rejoiced more in good work. The latest phase of his religion seemed to be a blending of evangelicalism with Carlyle's gospel of work, and he believed that "the peace of God rested on all the dutiful and kindly hearts of the laborious poor, and that the only constant form of pure religion was in useful work, faithful love, and stintless charity." In every phase of his life's work there was running a deep, earnest, and faithful trust in the government of the world by God; a seeking after the understanding of the

will of God and an attempt to fulfill it. One of his latest bits of published writing is worth noting. It was a message to his friends, printed as a preface to a reprint of Sir Henry Acland's lecture on "The Oxford Museum." It was dated 1894 and ran:

Say to my friends in the Oxford Museum from me, may God bless the reverent and earnest study of nature and of man to his glory, to the better teaching of the future, to the benefit of our country, and to the good of all mankind.

VI.—RUSKIN THE MAN.

Mr. Ruskin was usually very frank with the public about his developments and experiences. His works were all so personal that his readers were taken completely into his confidence. There was very little mystery or reticence about him, ex-



MR. RUSKIN'S RESIDENCE, "BRANTWOOD," CONISTON.

cept on one subject, and that subject was his love affairs and his relations to his wife. Just the topic which gossips would have liked him to be most free about. I would like to leave the matter quite alone, seeing Mr. Ruskin himself considered it too private a matter to tell the world anything about. However, so much error had been circulating concerning it that it comes to be a positive matter of duty in any sketch of this kind to state the facts, or silence would give plausibility to the thought that there is something to cover.

The affair, after all, is very simple. In 1841 John Ruskin wrote "The King of the Golden River" for a pretty Scotch girl with plenty of spirits and vigorous health. She grew up into a real beauty, and the parents of John thought she would make a fit companion for their son. He was retiring and perhaps a little morbid, and they imagined the girl's brightness and gaiety would form the proper complement to his nature. They persuaded him, in 1847, to propose marriage to her. She was wealthy and beautiful, and the parents of both sides considered the match a capital one. But it was by no means a good match, for the pair were ill-suited. He was twenty-eight and she nineteen. She loved the gay world and all things which constitute brilliant and pleasurable society life. Mr. Ruskin cared nothing for these, but loved his books, minerals, and art, and took no interest in the ordinary pursuits of society. Those who had the opportunity of seeing the unfortunate man about seven years after the marriage say how miserable he always seemed. It was real suffering in mind and body that he had to undergo when he tried his utmost to do his duty toward the young lady he had thus married.

The unhappy pair soon realized they had nothing in common except the fact that their parents had arranged the match. All this was unknown to the public, and when small paragraphs appeared in the papers to the effect that Mrs. Ruskin had left her husband, everybody except his intimate acquaintances was astonished. Mr. Ruskin felt it was his own affair and did not concern anybody else. He refused to contradict even such silly rumors as that which said he had run away with somebody else's wife, or to correct other misstatements, or to offer any explanation whatever to the busy public or busier press concerning the unfortunate affair.

The lady afterward became the wife of a famous painter. All these circumstances were, of course, very painful to a man of Mr. Ruskin's character. Two other love affairs, equally unfortunate, are recorded. When he was seven-

teen he fell desperately in love with a French girl and wrote sonnets to her, but she never returned his love and married a French baron. Later in life Mr. Ruskin became just as violently enamored of a young lady pupil, but it brought him no happiness. She seemed at first to return his affection. Accordingly he proposed to her, but was refused. His sweetheart was more strict in her evangelical creed than either his mother or aunt. Her religious notions carried her to foolish lengths. When her lover declared that he loved no one better than he loved her she was horrified, because she thought such a declaration implied that he had forgotten God. She knew that he was not in sympathy with her evangelicalism, and she had read his scoffs at the faith she held dear in "Fors Clavigera." She thus concluded that if she accepted him she would be unequally yoked to an unbeliever. She was attached to him, nevertheless, but thought her conscience bade her resist her desires. Though a painful thing to her, she took the path of refusal resolutely, and there can be no doubt that it cost her her life. She became ill and was gradually sinking for about three years after the proposal, when it was clear to everybody concerned that she was on her death-bed. John Ruskin begged to see her once again. Her reply was to the effect that he could come if he had learned to say that he loved God better than he loved her. He could not, even now, bring himself to say this, and consequently her door was closed upon him forever. She died soon after.

Ruskin was once described as "small in person, careless in dress, and nervous in manner." He is also said to have had "a spare, stooping figure, a rough-hewn, kindly face, a mobile, sensitive mouth, clear, deep eyes, sweet and honest in repose, earnest and eloquent in debate." A visitor at Denmark Hill said that "he was emotional and nervous, and his voice, though rich and sweet, had a tendency to sink into a plaintive and hopeless tone. His large light eye was soft and genial, and his mouth was thin and severe. The brow was prominent and the chin receding."

But it is, after all, only idle curiosity which asks for details of eyes and mouth. The character of the man and his message are the important things connected with him. No writer of our generation has uttered more important truths or set a higher ideal of life for his fellows. He has done his best to make it possible to establish what he considered to be the kingdom of God, here and now; and this kingdom he believed was to be seen in just government, honest commerce, noble labor, adherence to truth, and righteous living.

THE SOUTHERN MOUNTAINEER.

OUR KINDRED OF THE BOONE AND LINCOLN TYPE.

BY WILLIAM GOODELL FROST, PH.D.

(President of Berea College, Berea, Ky.)

THE purpose of this article is to invoke a considerate judgment for the "mountain men" who have recently attracted so much attention in Kentucky, and for the army of our kinsmen who are behind them in the vast mountain region of the central South.

The writer is burdened by the weight of his discoveries in this unknown land. The condition of the mountain people, their numbers, and their possible value to the nation—all these are subjects upon which the general public, and even our statesmen and scholars, have but slight information.

Literature has begun to take note of this untrodden field and gives some more just interpretations than the newspapers. The "Craddock Stories" introduced the east Tennesseans to our reading public, and John Fox, Jr., has made important studies in the mountains of Kentucky and the Virginias. William E. Barton has commemorated mountain loyalty in his "Hero in Homespun."

Some of the more sensational manifestations of mountain life occasionally appear on the borders of their sylvan realm and then vanish like an apparition, and such apparitions have been numerous of late.

Frankfort, the capital city of Kentucky, has just had a visitation from a horde of these highlanders. They are described by amused and awe-struck reporters as "shaggy, shuffling, and of more than ordinary size." Their broad-brimmed soft hats and homespun trousers seemed appropriate to the knives in their boot-legs and the Winchester rifles in their hands.

The outbreak of the Spanish war diverted attention somewhat from another war which broke out at the same time between the Howard and Baker families in Clay County, but for some weeks this mountain feud was more sanguinary than the national duel with Spain. And the mountain war is still in progress.

The desultory warfare constantly going on against illicit distillers—"moonshiners" as they are styled in the poetic speech of the mountains—occupies a small army of revenue officers, and is somewhat analogous to the present stage of the conflict with the Filipinos.

The mountain problem in our Southern States is due to a geological accident—the fact that this vast and rugged section, extending from the Ohio River to Birmingham in Alabama and Atlanta in Georgia, has no coast line, no navigable stream, and no inland lakes. The extent of this region has been concealed by the fact that it was parceled out among nine different commonwealths. Each of these States has a mountainous back yard, and these bunched together form one of the grand divisions of the continent. For convenience we are giving this inland mountain realm the name of "Appalachian America."

Appalachian America has great diversities of surface and climate, from the "dissected plateau" of eastern Kentucky, across the "blue ridge," down through "the land of the sky" to the "knobs" of northern Georgia. But as a place of human habitation it has one characteristic—it is a land of saddle-bags! This single circumstance—the lack of any Erie Canal or other waterway—has barred the progress of the inhabitants.

The shaded mountain area of the map includes, of course, some towns and valleys quite in touch with the modern world.

Here is the typical family history (given under an assumed but common name):

Jesse Kindred was a soldier of the Revolution, and soon after the war, with his wife, Rebecca McComb, and three children, he "went West." It

seemed a matter of in-



MAP SHOWING THE APPALACHIAN TERRITORY.

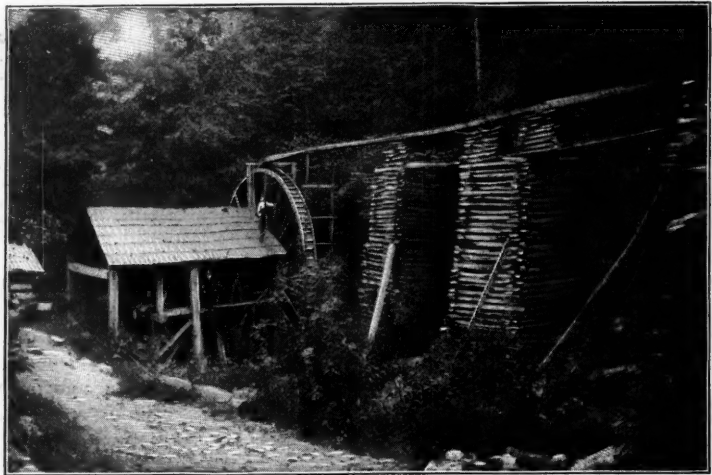
difference whether they should go to western New York, Pennsylvania, or Virginia, but in choosing the latter they unconsciously stepped outside the lines of commerce and of intellectual progress.

His son, Archibald, learned to read, write, and cipher from his mother, and at twenty-one mar-

ried Matilda Lincoln and took up a claim a hundred miles west of his father in another rich valley. The wedding journey was made with pack-horses, and they carried no books except the Bible and the Catechism and a small "patriotic reader." Archibald was a comrade of Daniel Boone, and was killed by the Indians while clearing the forest.

His son, Pleasant Kindred, never saw a school-house and never learned to read. And he never visited his kinsfolk in "the settlements." There were two reasons for this: first, the long journey, and, secondly, the fact that he shrank from being seen, and felt a social repulsion from the slave-holding aristocracy now dominant in Virginia.

His children, sixteen in number, met new fortunes. Their father had lost the art of reading, but had been a man of property. His children lost this distinction and advantage, for the valley



A MILL AND AQUEDUCT IN THE HILLS.

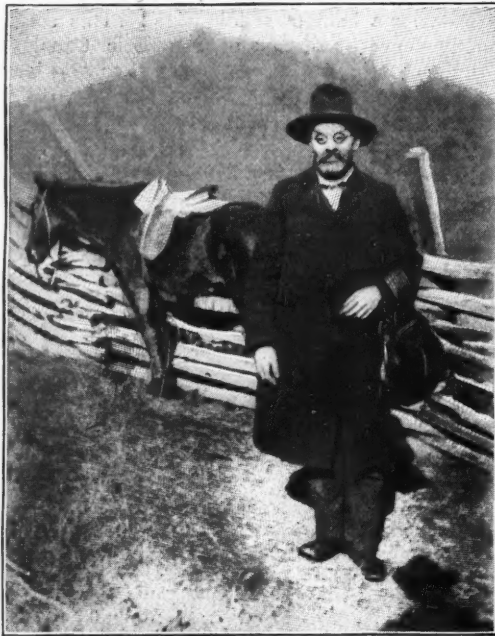
land was exhausted and they were forced to make homes on the thin soil and steep sides of the mountains. They lived in conditions not unlike those of England in the time of King Alfred. Several were killed in quarrels. The one whom we trace, Marion Kindred, is now keeping a "moonshine" still near the headwaters of "Middle Fork."

THESE SOUTHERNERS WERE UNIONISTS.

His son, Shird Kindred, drove some cattle to the lowlands in 1861 and found that a war was in progress. His sympathies were with the nation and he enjoyed fighting. As a Union scout, "bummer," and sharpshooter he performed important services for his country.

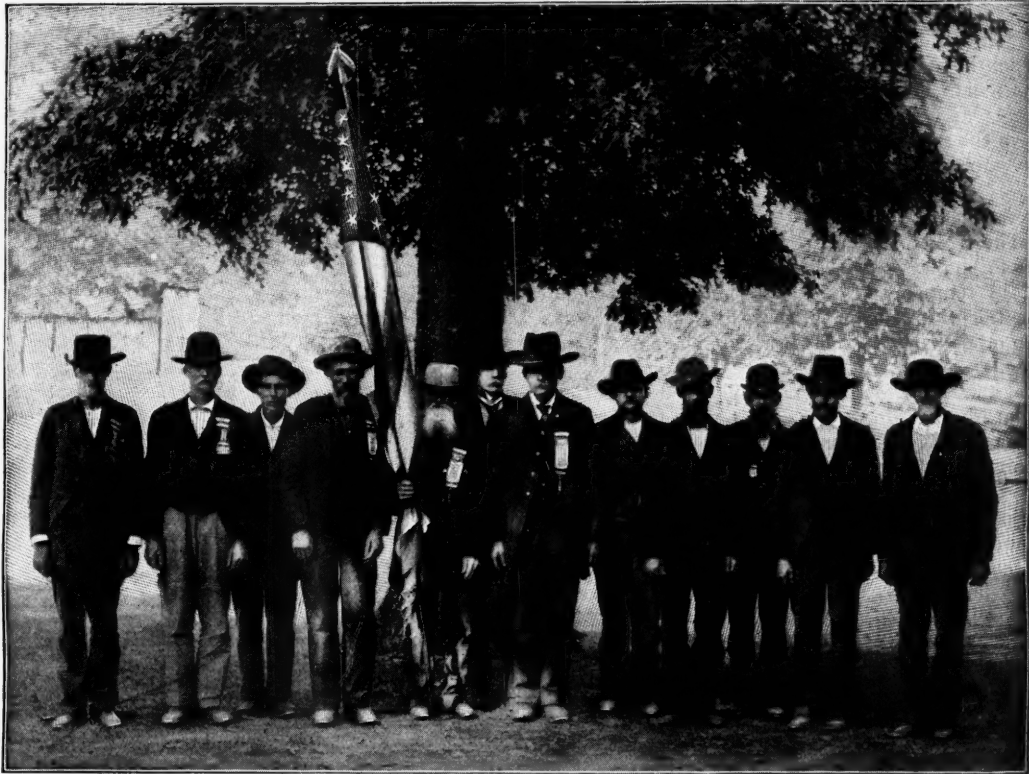
The loyalty of this region in the Civil War was a surprise to both Northern and Southern statesmen. The mountain people owned land, but did not own slaves, and the national feeling of the Revolutionary period had not spent its force among them. Their services in West Virginia and east Tennessee are perhaps generally known. But very few know or remember that the whole mountain region was loyal. Gen. Carl Schurz had soldiers enlisted in the mountains of Alabama, and the writer has recently seen a letter written by the Confederate governor of South Carolina in which he relates to General Hardee the troubles caused by Union sentiment in the mountain counties.

It is pathetic to know how these mountain regiments disbanded with no poet or historian or monument to perpetuate the memory of their valor. The very flag that was first on Lookout Mountain and "waved above the clouds" was



A MOUNTAIN PREACHER.

(He has never been to school and is not paid for his preaching.)



UNION VETERANS FROM THE SOUTHERN MOUNTAINS.
(The flag was the first planted on Lookout Mountain.)

lost to fame in an obscure mountain home when Berea discovered and rescued it from oblivion and destruction.

Shird Kindred came back from the army with larger ideas than his father or grandfather ever had, and when the public-school system was organized he became a school trustee.

At first he united with the other trustees in selling the school to a man who could not teach and pocketing the money. Then he "aimed" to use the product of an extra lot of hogs for educating his daughter Cynthia as a teacher, but there was a disease among the swine and the whole matter was deferred.

THE MOUNTAIN HOME.

Shird Kindred's establishment is worth visiting. As we ride up to the horse-block he greets us in nasal Saxon:

"Howdy, strangers? 'Light an' hitch yer beast-es. Ef yeou-all ken stand fer one day what we-all hev ter stand the year round, jes' kem in."

He has two log boxes eighteen feet square and

fifteen feet apart, with a roof that covers also the space between, and this space, open in front and rear, constitutes the general reception and dining room. Three small adjuncts are near at hand—a loom-house, smoke-house, and spring-house.

The "fambly" are supplied from their own "boundary" with abundance of corn-meal, string-beans, dried fruit, "long sweetening" (syrup), and hog meat. Also wool and flax, and possibly a little cotton. They barter feathers and "sang" at the "store house" on court day for supplies of coffee, boots, and patent medicines.

NO PRINTING PRESS IN TWENTY COUNTIES.

This is the best type of isolated mountain life. Beside it are types less hopeful. And even this idyllic condition must be further described by some reference to the early marriages, gambling, idleness of the vacant winter months, and other evils which beset a people who have few resources in books and education. Saddest of all is the bewildering lack of educated or well-informed leaders. There may be twenty counties in one group which do not contain a printing

press. The average preacher of the mountains is inclined to be suspicious of the "book larnin'" which he has failed to acquire. Religion itself is a melancholy affair chiefly connected with funerals and sectarian squabbles. And we thus have the startling anomaly of illiterate Protestants—Americans who are behind the times.

WHY THE MOUNTAINEER FIGHTS.

The fighting propensities of the mountaineers are to be classed with the other survivals of old-world temper and ideals. It is well to remember that the whole South is still far nearer than the other parts of the country to the age of chivalry, when all gentlemen wore side arms and felt that the Government was simply to defend them from foreign foes, while they were to rely upon their own prowess to protect their households and their honor. So far, then, as the backwoodsmen are affected by the example of those who have enjoyed superior advantages, they have been continuously taught to avenge their own wrongs rather than to appeal to law. And quite naturally they have shown less restraint and good taste in such matters. It is to be added that the administration of justice in the mountain counties is attended with even more delays and uncertainties than elsewhere. Add to this the fact that the mountaineer has the independent spirit born of solitude, constant practice in the use of firearms, and that the Civil War, in which the mountains were plundered by both armies, rekindled the belligerent spirit of their ancient blood. It gives us hope for their future that the frequent homicides are not committed wantonly nor for purposes of robbery, but in the spirit of an Homeric chieftain on some "point of honor."

With the exception of the terrible feud now going on in Clay County, Ky., the mountains are probably more quiet than at any time since the war. This Clay County affair, however, has been signalized by some features of "blindshooting" and cowardly "ambushing" which call forth the condemnation of the most noted fighters in the region.

"MOONSHINE" WHISKY.

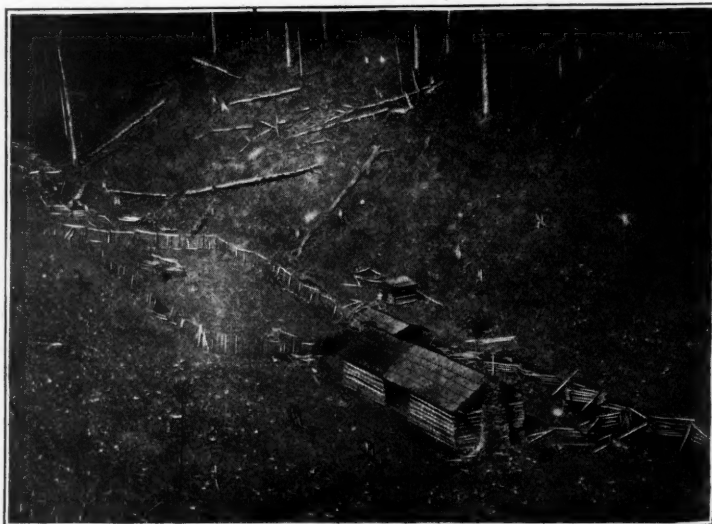
The making of "moonshine" whisky is another example of a crime often committed without the moral

degradation which comes from violating one's conscience. The tax on the manufacture of one's own corn into whisky seems to them a very arbitrary affair, and many of them evade it with more excuse than can be pleaded for the tourist who eludes the custom-house officer in New York. The making of "moonshine" is a very simple affair. A half barrel, bottom upward, clapped over a soap-kettle will make a satisfactory retort, and the only special apparatus necessary is the copper tube for condensation. "The revenues" always endeavor to destroy this tube, and the common description of their work is "they cut up the still."

The sin which does trouble the mountain conscience is not the evasion of the tax, but the making of the whisky at all! The evils of drinking are fully recognized. Several counties might be named in which "moonshine" stills exist, but which have "gone dry" and rigorously exclude saloons. It is more than likely that the temperance orator will anticipate the revenue officer in suppressing the illicit still.

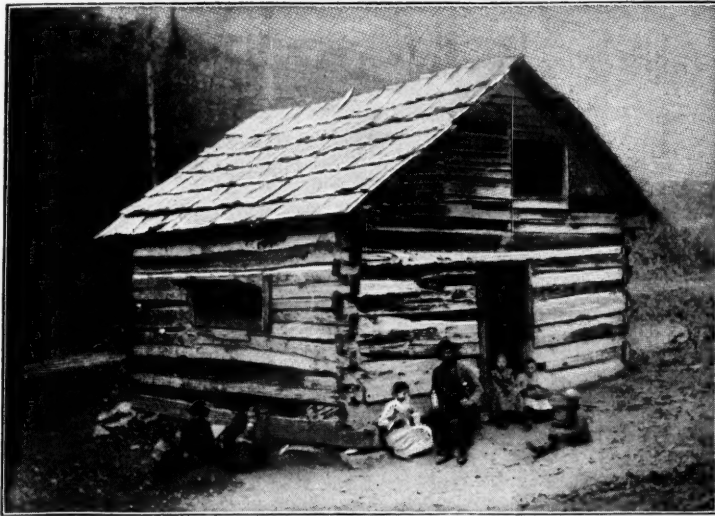
WHY THEY ARE REPUBLICANS.

The politics of the mountains are complicated. Fundamentally the people are Republicans, because they were "fer the Guverment" in the Civil War. And the more pronounced policies of the Republican party since the war have been understood and approved by the mountain folk. Their sense of justice made them favor "sound money." The argument which carried Kentucky and West Virginia for McKinley was:



A CHARACTERISTIC MOUNTAIN HOME.

(The loom-house is adjacent to the dwelling and the spring-house just beyond.)



LUNCH-TIME AT A MOUNTAIN SCHOOL.

"Ef I lend yeou a bag o' flour I don't allow I'm a-goin' ter be paid in meal." So, too, the mountaineers generally favor railroads and other improvements, partly because they realize that they will develop the country and partly because they will not have to pay for them.

Their conception of politics other than national, however, is very defective. Like other Southern men, they show the lack of the training of the "town meeting." Their exaggerated individuality is only offset by a spirit of clannishness with which they gather around a leader in the old feudal way. County politics are usually a barefaced scramble for the offices, though the counties which are so fortunate as to have a few able and high-principled men often keep them in the public service with commendable fidelity.

Many mountain men "expect something" from their leader at election time. This is not, in their eyes, a bribe. They would on no account so demean themselves as to sell their vote to the opposite party. But they will stay at home on election day unless their leader shows himself "a generous feller." If they fight and vote for their chieftain he owes them some feudal largess in return!

The diversity of thought, if not of interests, between mountain and lowland complicates the political operations of all parties in a number of States.

BEREA COLLEGE.

The present writer began acquaintance with the mountain folk in 1884 by a walk through West Virginia, which was undertaken for health and

geology, but which was soon wholly absorbed in the study of character and social conditions. In 1893 he was called to the presidency of Berea College, in the mountains of Kentucky. This brevet college, which is really a kind of social settlement, Cooper Institute, and extension bureau of civilization, claims the distinction of being the discoverer of the mountain people. Its early founders and teachers were the first to take note of peculiar conditions which marked off this population from the so-called "poor whites" on the one hand and the aristocratic "first families" on the other. The earliest and fullest publica-

tions relative to this region came from Berea, although its duty in this regard has been too



A BERE A GIRL, WEARING HOMESPUN DRESS AND MITTS.



HOME-MADE "KIVERS."

much neglected. But the institution has the most favorable location and history, and is undertaking to deal with the mountain problem in a thorough and comprehensive manner. The present seems a favorable time to secure for this great enterprise the attention and coöperation which it deserves.

I traversed large portions of this wild country and sent "extension workers" through still wider areas of it. I have also consulted with the few persons who have knowledge of this people—the generals like Schurz and Cox, who commanded mountain troops in the Civil War, and Wheeler, whose mountain Confederates got away from him and went over to the Union side; the historians who have studied their record from the battle of King's Mountain—John Fiske, and Woodrow Wilson, and Theodore Roosevelt; and the scientists—Shaler and Hayes—who have made tours through the region studying the people as well as the rocks; and the chief specialists upon Southern education.

TWO MILLION BELATED AMERICANS CHALLENGE
OUR ATTENTION.

With this preparation I make bold to say that there are at least 2,000,000 native Americans in Appalachian America who are living practically in the conditions of colonial times. The chief difference is that the colonial people were consciously in motion and felt themselves to be in the front of the progress of their time, while the mountain people have a depressing sense of being behind.

It should be said further that these people are now more destitute of all the opportunities that go with education than any other people of our race in the world.

And above all I wish to have it known that this condition has come about through natural causes, so that we cannot blame the people as

negligent nor despise them as inferior. If the scions of our own families which settled in western New York had gone instead to western Virginia they too would have been groping in the mountains to-day.

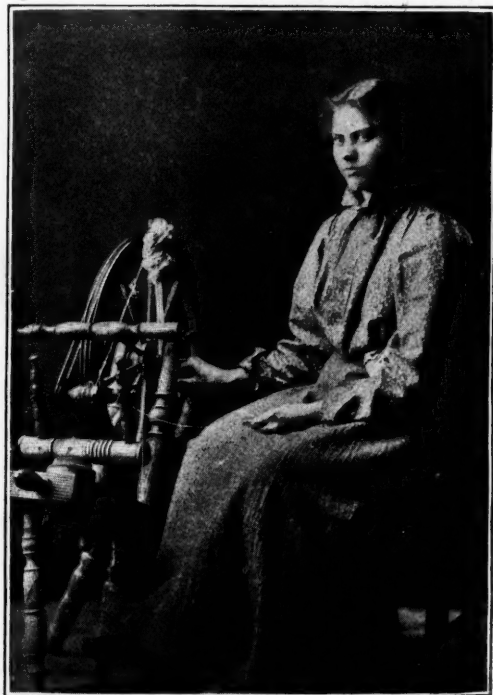
And there is one other affirmation which I have the right to make: these people need us and we need them.

NEED OF THE MOUNTAINEERS.

They need the friendly guidance and the financial aid in educational beginnings which have been so freely and so wisely given to the West. And they are a patriotic, capable people, with unjaded nerves and red blood, who may reënforce the vigor of the nation.

This article is an invitation for the far-seeing and patriotic people of America to help their fellow-countrymen who have been lost in the woods. The need of the negro was universally known and recognized, and all that has been given for his education has been abundantly repaid. The need of the West has been known also, and through natural channels of commerce and kinship we have helped each Western State in its educational foundations.

My clients in the Southern mountains are at once more needy and more hopeful, and they



A MOUNTAIN GIRL WITH HER "FANCY WORK."



GROUP OF MOUNTAIN BOYS AT BEREA.

have been almost utterly neglected because they were unknown. They have not the natural means of communication with the older and more favored parts of the land. They can only make their condition known through some ambassador like myself.

In asking assistance for them it is fitting to discuss somewhat the proper methods of our aid. We are entering upon a new and strange field, and may well pause to consider with fullest attention the question of aims and adaptations. Schools may be found which have existed on the borders of this region for many years, and yet have been so imperfectly adapted to the strange conditions that they have had but slight effect on the life of the people.

BEREAS PROGRAMME.

Our first principle, then, is adaptation. To secure this we must actually know the people in order that we may put ourselves in their place and give them the right elements of advanced civilization in the right order; or rather that, while ourselves aware of the advanced civilization, we may develop their civilization in the same direction, leading them rapidly through the stages of progress which our families have already traversed. It is not our aim to set them in motion toward the strife of the cities, but to make them sharers in the essential blessings of civilization in the mountains. We would make them,

like the people of Scotland, intelligent without being sophisticated.

With this in view we are encouraging the fire-side industries which are adapted to their present mode of life and studying the possibilities of log architecture.

THE "EXTENSION" SERVICE.

Perhaps our most important adaptation is the "extension" service—sending out traveling libraries and lecturers who speak on elementary subjects like United States history, mountain farming, and the management of the public schools.

The people will often adjourn court to hear one of these lectures, and a year later they will repeat the principal points in such a discourse. This method surpasses even the industrial conference in that it reaches the people at their homes, and arouses those who have not yet enough interest to bring them to any large but distant convocation. If means permit we plan to distribute through this extension service 100,000 copies of simple works on government, like the admirable book by Charles F. Dole, and thus reinforce the growing sentiment for "law and order." The need of such instruction was brought home to us when we found a bright student who supposed that it was "all right" for any kinsman of a murdered man to make way with the slayer provided it was done "right soon!"

We cannot wait for the mountains to come to school, but by methods like this we can leaven a very wide region with the ideas and ideals which will protect the people from adverse influences and prepare them for a better day.

NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL WORK.

Another principle constantly in mind is to help toward self-help. Under this head come both our normal and industrial work.

The normal department—now the largest—raises up teachers and strengthens the new and struggling public school. If the public-school system can be made to work and the people taught to believe in it and won to its support, it will be a strong force pulling in the right direction permanently.

The need of industrial guidance is sufficiently evident. The resources of science must be placed at the disposal of these children of the wilderness, and they must be helped to make the great transition from the age of hunting and barter to the age of skilled labor. We need only allude to our promising work in elementary forestry, agriculture, and stock-raising (stock is a farm product which can walk to market), woodwork, as well as domestic science and nursing—all carefully adapted to local conditions—to show the practical and comprehensive nature of our programme.

One other general principle should be mentioned. There has been a suggestion from many quarters that the educational aid extended to our new possessions should be non-sectarian. We have anticipated this suggestion in our work for

these mountains. The old idea that each religious body should have a wholly independent work, including college, press, and all the machinery of civilization, has at least proved very expensive. Berea College was organized on a different basis, prohibiting control by any one denomination, but expecting to coöperate with all. Aside from the economy of this arrangement are the great advantages of the momentum of a larger institution and the practical object-lesson of coöperation.

THE BRAVE EFFORTS OF THE STUDENTS.

The response which the mountain people themselves make to these efforts proves that we are not greatly mistaken in our aims, or hopes, or methods. It does one's heart good to help a young Lincoln who comes stalking in perhaps a three days' journey on foot, with a few hard-earned dollars in his pocket and a great eagerness for the education he can so faintly comprehend. (Scores of our young people see their first railroad train at Berea!)

And it is a joy to welcome the mountain girl who comes back after having taught her first school, bringing the money to pay her debts and buy her first comfortable outfit—including rubbers and suitable underclothing—and perhaps bringing with her a younger sister.

Such a girl exerts a great influence in her school and mountain home. An enthusiastic old mountaineer described an example in this wise: "I tell yeou hit teks a moughty resolute gal ter do what that thar gal has done. She got, I reckon, about the toughest deestric in the ceounty,



BEREA STUDENTS LEARNING TO WORK IN WOOD.

which is sayin' a good deal. An' then fer boardin'-place—well, there warn't much choice. There was one house, with one room. But she kep' right on, an' yeou would hev thought she was havin' the finest kind of a time ter look at her. An' then the last day, when they was sayin' their pieces an' sich, some sorry fellers come in thar full o' moonshine an' shot their revolvers. I'm a-tellin' ye hit takes a moughty resolute gal."

It is such resolution that brings young people from their far-off homes, and has made the number of our mountain students double and double again.

Almost without exception these boys and girls go back to their mountains to help "build up the country." A lad who has been at Berea two or three years will be needed for some office in

his native county. The most attractive homes you will see in a long ride are presided over by young women who were once pupils at Berea. We are perfectly sure that if our present work can be sustained and extended many of us will live to see the wide region transformed, these vigorous people brought clear over from the ranks of the doubtful classes and added to the useful and reliable strength of the nation.

The whole "case" of the mountaineer may be summed up in the story of Abraham Lincoln. His great career hinged upon the fact that his mother had six books. In that circumstance he differed from the other boys of the region.

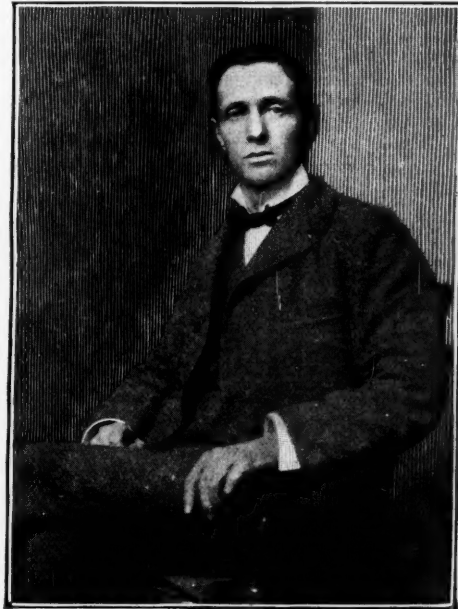
Is it too much to say that but for that ray of light his great soul would have been strangled in the birth?

THE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY AT BEREA.

IN Dr. William Goodell Frost, who contributes the foregoing article on the mountaineers of the Appalachian Belt of the South, those people have found an educational leader who has a truly marvelous fitness for his work. He is a brilliant scholar, was formerly professor of Greek at Oberlin College, Ohio, and might now be comfortably settled in any one of a dozen Northern or Eastern universities. But he has great enthusiasm for the people of the Southern mountains, and he knows how to inspire and help them. Berea College is situated on the line between the Kentucky "blue-grass" region and the mountain country. Its students have been increasing by leaps and bounds during the past few years.

In hardly any place else in the world are good educational results obtained upon so economical a basis. The number of students now approaches 800, and the thousand mark will certainly be reached within two or three years. Opportunities are given students to support themselves in part by work while they are studying. President Eliot, in a speech at Boston six weeks ago, in indorsement of Berea College, set forth with his wonted lucidity the reasons why the mountain population of the South is well worth working for, and the further reasons why Berea College is especially fitted, by virtue of its history, plans, and excellent management, to be sustained by those who would like to help educate the neglected Americans of that isolated region. On the point of expense President Eliot made the following interesting statement:

I find that a boy or a girl can be a member of Berea College about forty weeks of the year at a total cost for



WILLIAM GOODELL FROST.
(President of Berea College.)

board, lodging, fuel, lights, books, and fees of from \$90 to \$120 for the entire academic year. I am almost ashamed to mention that a man cannot go to Harvard for less than \$400 a year. Berea will receive and teach an east Tennessee or east Kentucky youth the whole academic year, board and lodge him, and give him light, heat, and books for from \$90 to \$120. For this reason the college is worthy of our help.

Southern educators say with truth that Dr. A. D. Mayo, of Boston, understands Southern educational conditions as no other Northern man understands them; and we know that Dr. Mayo always speaks with a keen sense of the weight and meaning of words and of responsibility for the opinions that he utters. It is, therefore, interesting to obtain his views of the work at Berea based upon a recent investigation. From a longer unpublished statement by him we may quote the following paragraphs:

It emerged from the eclipse of war into new and vigorous life, and has gradually made its way to public attention by solid service during the past thirty years. I know of no college in the South that can show a better record of honest work, done by superior teachers, under circumstances involving great sacrifice and sometimes peril, than the long and honorable record of Berea. During the brief administration of President Frost it has made prodigious advances in all lines. It now comes before the people as a national enterprise, not as something proposed to be done, but as a unique and characteristic educational success.

If I were a man of wealth, with my present knowledge of the educational necessities of the entire South and keen interest in every kind of good work now going on there, I would give to Berea College to the extent of my ability. I would do this because I believe so much depends upon just the kind of work which this institution is doing for the plain white people. The colored race, also represented at Berea, will rise or fall accord-

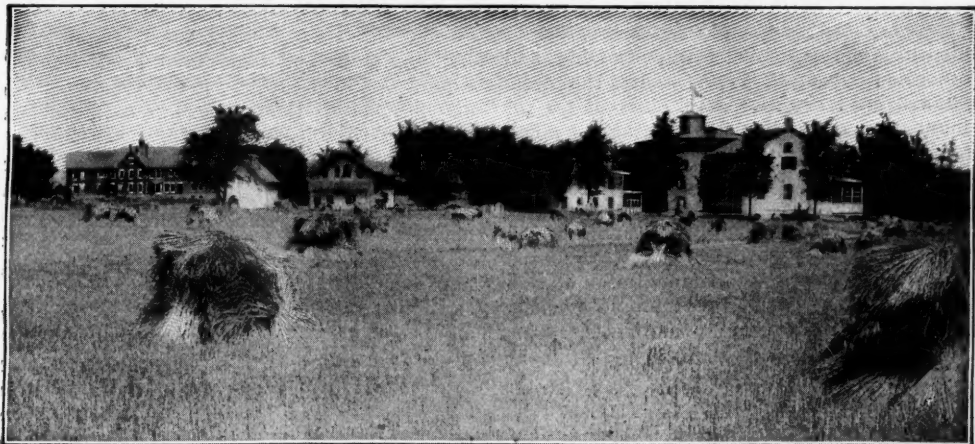
ing as this great body of the Anglo-Saxon population is brought into line with the American ideals of good citizenship.

At present Berea has, without question, the lead in all efforts making for this happy consummation. It only needs that the people of all sections should be informed of this rare opportunity to bless a region as large as more than one European kingdom, by furnishing the money which shall place Berea College in the assured position it has so abundantly earned.

Berea's resources—outside of its experience and the ability of its workers—consist of grounds, buildings, and the tools of education to the value of \$150,000 and an old endowment fund of about \$60,000. Receiving no aid from any State or society, it has carried on its work by annual gifts from individuals. Its rapid increase of responsibility ought not longer to be met in this way. The trustees—among whom are Hon. C. F. Burnham, of Richmond, Ky., D. B. Gamble, of Cincinnati, Hon. Addison Ballard, of Chicago, and J. Cleveland Cady, of New York—are moving for an endowment fund of \$500,000. Dr. D. K. Pearsons, of Chicago, has given generous aid, selecting Berea as the sole object of his benefactions in the South. Two hundred thousand dollars have been paid in, and above \$100,000 more is pledged on condition that another total of \$200,000 shall be secured in the next few weeks.



A GROUP OF BEREA GIRLS.



VIEW OF BUILDINGS AT THE CRAIG COLONY FARM.

A NEW YORK "COLONY OF MERCY."

BY SYDNEY BROOKS.

IT is only within the last few years that anything has been done in America for epileptics as a class. Up to 1890 practical philanthropy had neglected the problems of their care—problems which the nature of epilepsy makes of exceptional difficulty. The peculiarity of the malady, as every one knows, is that the sufferer from it is robbed of his consciousness for a mere fraction of time at varying intervals. What is not so well realized is that both before and after the seizures his condition is virtually normal, and his ability to work and play his part in social life as active and unquestionable as that of any ordinary healthy man. And it is just this conjunction of moments of unconsciousness with whole tracts of time during which reason and vigor and ambition are undisturbed that makes up the distinctive pathos of the disease and the difficulty of providing properly for its victims. For the patient's fate in life is decided not by the long periods of health, but by the few odd minutes of sickness. Fully possessed during most of the time with the faculties and instincts of health, he has to pay a life-long penalty for the transitory moments when those faculties and instincts are in abeyance. Willing to learn, he is yet debarred from learning, for no school will take him. Not less anxious than others for companionship, he is shunned like a leper. Eager to work and knowing that in work lies his best hope of relief, he is nevertheless condemned to idleness. From every form of employment, as from every form of pleasure, he is hopelessly excluded. A morose and unsocial childhood, passing into a despairing manhood and ending

through slow processes of degeneration often in insanity, at times in a life to which even insanity would seem preferable—this was the common lot of the 120,000 epileptics in the United States up to six or seven years ago. The hospitals would not receive them, and anyway could not give them the attention they needed. No choice was offered them between leading a hopeless existence in their own homes, a torture to themselves and those around them and an easy prey to quacks, or taking refuge in an almshouse, where the life, atmosphere, and diet were most unfitted for them, or being committed to an insane asylum, often without proper justification.

Dr. Frederick Peterson, of New York City, was the first American to set himself to the removal of the twofold stigma which the neglect of this unhappy class had placed upon society and the state. A service of several years in the Hudson River State Hospital for the Insane and in the Vanderbilt Clinic proved to him how much ought to be done for epileptics; a visit to Bielefeld, in Westphalia, and other European institutions in 1886 showed how much could be done. The Bielefeld charity was started in 1865 exclusively for the care of epileptics, and the wisdom of its directors evolved what is now recognized as the best method of dealing with epileptics on a large scale—not housing them together in one large building, but scattering them over a farm in small detached cottages. Returning home, Dr. Peterson made known the work that was being done at Bielefeld and threw himself into the advocacy of like charities in the United States. The two institutions already

founded in America, one at Gallipolis, Ohio, and the other at Sonyea, N. Y., as well as the measures now being taken in several other States for the foundation of similar charities, are as much a proof of what can be accomplished by one strong, able, and untiring man as of the extreme and enviable readiness of Americans to give trial to any experiment that promises relief where relief is wanted.

Ohio, by the opening of its institution at Gallipolis in 1893, was the first State to identify itself with the new movement; but whether from motives of economy or to flatter local pride by the creation of large and imposing buildings, the central idea of the Bielefeld "colony" system, which is all against such barrack-like edifices and all in favor of small and scattered cottages, was somewhat missed. New York was considerably more fortunate in its venture. The agitation led by Dr. Peterson soon gathered to itself the support of such philanthropists as the late Oscar Craig, of Rochester, and the Hon. William P. Letchworth,* both for many years presidents of the State Board of Charities. The Legislature was won over in 1892 to the establishment of a colony for epileptics, and an almost ideal site for such a colony was quickly found. A body of Shakers who had been settled for over fifty years on a slope of the historic Genesee Valley were anxious to sell their property and join their falling numbers to a larger branch of co-religionists elsewhere in the State. This property was a fertile, undulating stretch of meadow and woodland, about 1,900 acres in area, well watered by two streams, and containing, besides several acres of sound timber, some serviceable quarries of

*This most kindly and philanthropic gentleman, whose life has been one long charity is the author of "Care and Treatment of Epileptics" (Putnam), a valuable and well-ordered book which completely covers its subject.

building stone and deposits of brick clay. The State was allowed to buy it for \$115,000—a sum about equal to the value of the improvements alone. At the instance of Governor Flower the institution planted on it was named Craig Colony, in memory of one of its most zealous advocates.

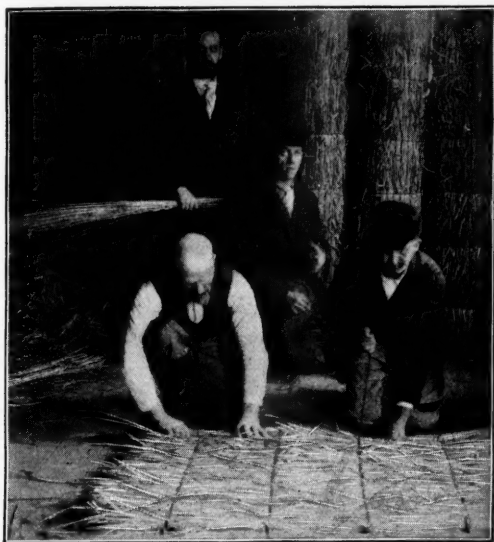
Though modeled on the plan of the Bielefeld charity, Craig Colony has many points peculiar to itself besides the grand distinction of being a State institution under State control. It is restricted to the epileptics of New York State alone, and primarily also to those of them who are proved to be indigent. Of these the State contains at least 2,000. Its total epileptic population is put at 12,000, but until the 2,000 dependents have been provided for no pay-patients will be received. For each indigent patient received into the colony the State provides a maintenance fund of \$250 a year, and the counties contribute \$30 for the clothing expenses of each person taken from their areas.

It is one of the aims of the board of managers to make Craig Colony as far as possible a self-supporting institution. For this reason patients who have become insane are not admitted, and any colonists who may lose their reason after admission are transferred to asylums. Those only are received who stand a reasonable chance of profiting by the life to be provided for them, the directors believing that at any rate in the early and tentative years of the colony the end proposed cannot be reached without a careful selection of the means.

In most other respects Craig Colony is a reproduction of the Bielefeld charity. The basic principle of the two institutions is identical. Both pin their faith to the colony system as the most satisfactory method of management in an epileptic community, and where the New York settlement seems likely to surpass the older foundation



THE CRAIG COLONISTS AT A GAME OF BASEBALL.



PATIENTS WEAVING STRAW MATS.

in usefulness is less in the originality than in the prosecution of its policy, in a more thorough and business-like completeness, in its powers of expansion on an almost unprecedented scale, and especially in its opportunities for scientific research. The colony was thrown open to patients in January, 1896. The previous two years had been spent in putting the old Shaker buildings in repair, in introducing steam heat and electric light, in providing for an ample water supply and the disposal of sewage, in purchasing farm stock and utensils, in the thousand-and-one problems of severe detail that have to be arranged for in preparing a village for the reception of its inhabitants. The directors came out of the trial more than successfully. They did nothing extravagantly and yet did everything well. They held fast to the idea of letting the colony work out its own development and stood out against the easy temptation to do too much.

Craig Colony is many things in one. It is a farm, a school, a laboratory, a workshop, a hospital, and an asylum; but above everything else it is a home. The atmosphere of comradeship, of mutual interest and sympathy is so evident and genuine as to infect one instantly. Whatever can be done to make life at the colony free and natural, both in work and play, has been done. The vigilance of the nurses and attendants can hardly relax for a moment, yet it is never observable. An obtrusive guardianship would destroy the very quality of ease and liberty which the directors most desire to foster; and the vis-

itor, while he knows he is surrounded by a system of untiring watchfulness, will scarcely even feel its presence, much less have it visibly brought before him. The final impression one takes away is that of a spirit of kindness and common brotherhood as strong between the patients and those in charge of them as among the patients themselves. It is seen, to take one of a hundred proofs of it, in the wise and generous encouragement of every kind of sport and amusement—a sure test by which to judge any charitable institution.

It is, of course, from its system of employment that the colony expects its greatest results, not only for the health of its patients, but for its credit as an economic success. On all who are physically fit for it some form of occupation is laid as a duty, and, thanks to the carefulness used in admitting patients, about 80 per cent. of them are always available. It must be remembered the colony has not only to feed, clothe, and nurse its patients, educate them, study them, provide amusement for them, but has also to work a farm of nearly 2,000 acres. So far much of the work done has been purely constructive; but even so, the value of the farm and garden products for 1896 (the opening year of the colony) came to not less than 50 per cent. of the maintenance fund; in 1897 to slightly over 56 per cent.; and in 1898 to a fraction over 57 per cent. While agriculture and market gardening are the staple occupations, they are not the only ones. About a score of patients are regularly employed in the brick yard, others in the printing office or blacksmith or carpenter shops. Others become tailors or cobblers or are put to work at upholstery and the weaving of straw mats. There is a large and well-directed Sloyd school, which turns out work of quite surprising excellence. The women patients are mostly engaged indoors, though some of them work in the gardens and around the lawns. The ordinary housework is entirely in their hands. They are also employed in the kitchen and laundry, and the more intelligent among them drilled to be waitresses. The matron's reports show an almost appalling number of articles made, mended, and sewed. They run up into the thousands and include most imaginable things from pillows, bandages, and sheets down to towels and coat straps.

The greatest care is given to the training and education of the children, for it is on them that the colony relies to prove its final usefulness. A little old Shaker schoolhouse was made ready for them in the first year of the colony's life, and there with infinite patience they are taught to read and write and work the simplest sums in



DINNER-TIME AT THE CRAIG LUMBER CAMP.

arithmetic. Even when the effects of their early years of neglect have been partially overcome, the residuum left to work upon is, after all, a perverted and unfinished product. It is not possible to supply what is lacking; all that is aimed at is to make the best use of what there is, in the hope that gentle discipline in the supervision of what is found to interest them may gradually lead to the forming of those qualities of application and self-control which will fit them for a useful after life. As a rule, it is found that the children take more readily to manual work—such as clay-modeling, basket-weaving, sewing, and drawing—than to purely mental exercises.

A layman cannot pass upon the scientific treatment of the patients at Craig Colony; but it is hardly possible to read the reports of the medical superintendent without finding in them a growing conviction that the usefulness of drugs is of secondary value when compared with the beneficial effects of the general life offered by the colony. It is on the efficacy of a carefully chosen dietary and especially of steady and interesting labor that the directors have taken their main stand. By one of the best provisions of its charter the colony is obliged to establish a department of scientific research; and for this it has collected an amount of material probably unequalled anywhere in mere quantity and unsur-

passable in its minuteness, method, and arrangement. With its training school for nurses, its laboratory, its unique system of records, and its exceptional opportunities for studying epilepsy at first hand, the colony is not unhopeful of leading the whole scientific world in the extent and value of its researches.

The colony's economic justification lies in its conversion of a number of helpless, burdensome people into active, self-supporting citizens. Even Turgot would assent to this phase of its work. But how far has it accomplished its chief purpose—that of benefiting the victims of epilepsy? The answer for those who have not seen with their own eyes the work that is being done must come from the official reports. Of the 68 patients discharged between January, 1896, and October, 1898, 36 were declared sufficiently improved to take up ordinary life again, and 7 were sent away because they had completely recovered. The cases in which admission to the colony has been followed by a reduction of over 50 per cent. in the number of seizures in less than six months and by a corresponding improvement in physique and mental vigor are too numerous to be worth detailing. Not three patients in a hundred fail to show some visible benefit from the new influences brought to bear upon them.

The colony is still in an unfinished state. It does not profess at present to be more than an

indication of what a model institution should be, of what it itself will eventually become. By October of this year it will contain a population of over 800; but it will not cease to grow till at least 2,000 patients are within its fold. Its classification of patients is still tentative and unsatisfactory, chiefly because of a lack of buildings. For this, too, time and money only are wanting. The final home-like touch has not yet been given to the houses; the living-rooms and dormitories contain little beyond the bare necessities. The State comptroller is still some distance from the

heights whereon the obligation of providing rooms with mats, rugs, pictures, ornaments, and the thousand-and-one little comforts of a home is frankly acknowledged—a defect in the governing powers at Albany which private charity, when it hears of it, might very well supply. Nor, of course, have the grounds one tithe of the picturesque they are sure to develop hereafter. But the probationary days are over, and from the way in which they have been weathered one can gauge the full harvest of useful charity that awaits Craig Colony in the future.

THE BALANCE-SHEET OF A SMALL MARYLAND PEACH FARM.

BY WORTH B. STOTTLEMYER.

ONE of the most profitable agricultural industries of Maryland is that of peach-growing. Thousands of acres on both eastern and western shores are given to the cultivation of peaches in order to meet the great demand created by Baltimore and Philadelphia markets. Not more than twenty years have elapsed since the birth of this thriving industry, for it is only possible since transportation has been facilitated by a network of railroads, yet within this period perhaps half of the farms in many counties of the State have abandoned wheat and corn and the ordinary agricultural products, except for home consumption, and are now entirely devoted to peach-growing.

Although the peach orchards of some sections are occasionally destroyed by diseases to which fruit trees are addicted, yet the industry has ever been on the increase as it proceeds from one section to another. This alone would seem to be convincing evidence of its profitability.

The first thought that comes into the mind of the prospective peach-grower is the location of his orchard. It is advantageous to have it situated within a radius of three miles of a railroad station, else the expenses for transportation will play too important a part to be carried on very successfully.

The quality of the soil hardly enters into consideration in respect to location, as peach trees are adapted to almost any kind of soil, but a poor soil is to be preferred. Trees planted in poor soil do not grow so rapidly, are therefore much more hardy, and will endure severer winters than trees planted in rich soil.

But far more vital than either distance from

station or condition of soil is the inclination of the land. In order that a surer crop may be expected the land should slope gently toward the northwest. Land thus situated is exposed to the most rigorous western winds, and the sun has less effect upon the trees in the way of driving forth the incipient buds which are thus kept in check. Consequently they are less liable to be frozen while in the incipient state by lingering spring frosts.

Our peach orchard of thirty acres is situated in the western Maryland peach belt, two miles from station, and has best slope for sure crop. These thirty acres were purchased in 1885 at \$70 per acre and planted in peach trees at once.

Of course varieties had to be selected, and to the uninitiated this would be a difficult task, as so many things have to be taken into consideration. For this section of the country we had previously learned that late varieties were the best in quality, stood shipping well, and commanded the highest prices in the city markets. Among the preferable late varieties selected we planted the Salway, Crawford's Late, Heath Cling, and Heath Freestone. We used great care in the purchasing of trees. This is of vital importance, for trees that are unsound when young will soon produce a diseased orchard. Many of the prevalent diseases are due to the careless nurserymen.

The Legislature of Maryland has enacted laws prohibiting the importation from foreign nurseries of trees that have not been fumigated. In spite of this legislation trees are shipped into Maryland that have not been fumigated, and as a result many diseases are now prevalent. This

process of fumigation for the purpose of destroying the germs on trees sent from the nursery is of recent origin, and it is a subject of general discussion as to whether the remedy is not oftentimes worse than the disease. In the winter of 1898-99 many trees that had undergone the process of fumigation were frozen. It was claimed by many that in the process of fumigation the trees were subjected to a very high temperature and thus rendered very much more tender. On the other hand, the friends of fumigation claim that the large percentage of frozen trees was solely due to the unusually low temperature that winter. Time only will be needed to solve this question.

Our trees cost \$45 per thousand, though at the same time we would have been able to have procured the same varieties at some other nurseries for a great deal less. The shipping and planting cost us \$60.78 for the thirty acres. We planted one hundred trees to the acre, thus giving sufficient room for cultivation. Our outlay, including machinery and incidentals, thus far was as follows:

Land	\$2,100.00
Trees.....	135.00
Planting, etc.....	60.78
Machinery.....	170.07
Incidentals.....	4.04
Total.....	\$2,469.89

For four years the orchard was cultivated thoroughly, while only slight crops were realized the third and fourth years. However, from a careful account made during the time we found that the cost of cultivation was a little more than covered by the receipts from vegetables that were raised upon the land in the meantime. While the trees are in their first, second, and third years the orchard can be planted in vegetables of various kinds without any perceptible injury to the trees. At the same time the cultivation of the vegetables cultivates the trees also.

The fifth year we realized a fairly good crop, and during fourteen years we secured six crops from the orchard. The average age of a healthy peach orchard in this section of the country ranges from ten to sixteen years, and generally a good crop is realized every other year.

By careful records kept we find that the average amount of fruit grown upon each tree for the six crops was two and eight-ninth crates, or a little over two and a half bushels. Of course the quantity varies very much. A large healthy tree often yields five, eight, ten, or even more bushels, but during the fourth year hardly any of the trees

yield more than a peck apiece. Thus on an average each one of our trees produced fifteen bushels during its lifetime. In fact, the orchard produced 44,364 bushels of salable fruit.

From the sale of these 44,364 bushels we realized a net gain, over picking, crating, shipping, commission, express, etc., of \$46,361.07. The net profit per bushel would thus be a little over \$1, but in fact this varies from 5 cents to \$6 and \$8 per bushel.

Our expenditures were heavy, for the trees had to be well cultivated and fertilized during the ten years of productiveness. Cultivation, including superintendence, amounted to \$1,320, while the fertilizer bills footed up \$769. Our expenses included also interest on capital and taxes during the period of fourteen years.

The following gives an exact statement of expenditures and net returns:

Net returns for peach sales.....	\$46,361.07
Land.....	\$2,100.00
Trees.....	135.00
Planting, etc.....	60.78
Machinery.....	170.07
Cultivation.....	1,320.00
Fertilizers.....	769.00
Taxes.....	312.06
Interest.....	2,520.90
Incidentals.....	11.88
Total.....	7,399.69
Profits.....	\$38,961.38

Taking the difference between these two columns, we have an almost fabulous gain of \$38,961.38. This may seem a large gain to one not acquainted with the business, but we feel confident that other peach-growers realized very much larger returns from their healthy orchards than we did.

It is true that very many orchards die a premature death from that dreaded disease "the yellows," yet this is generally so only with negligent growers.

When we see peach trees planted by the hundred acres, orchards extending for miles, hundreds of hands busy picking the luscious fruit and crating it for market, all on a single farm, and whole train loads hauled from a single station; when growers order their own cars for daily transportation; when a peach-grower can send his wife to bank with \$3,500 in check returns for a single day, who has netted \$65,000 from a single crop; when we candidly reflect upon the remarkable increase in the consumption of this fruit, almost to be regarded as a staple, we can truly exclaim, "The end is not yet."

THE AMERICAN MERCHANT MARINE.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

IN that vast material expansion of America which is a wonder and glory of the nineteenth century one great, honorable, and ancient interest for many years has had no share.

While American manufactures have increased fivefold since 1860, commerce threefold, agriculture threefold, and coastwise and domestic shipping twofold, the American deep-sea fleet, carrying cargoes in the foreign trade, has shrunk to one-third of the tonnage of forty years ago. This exceptional result must have been produced by exceptional causes. Those causes and the best means for checking their disastrous operation justify all the keen attention which they have received in the past few years from the statesmen in Washington and the merchants of the Atlantic and Pacific seaboard.

No other nation in the world is in such a humiliating plight as ours. No other with any pretension to mercantile or maritime greatness depends upon its foreign rivals for the transportation of nine-tenths of its oversea trade. It is a conservative estimate that the United States is now paying every year to foreign ship owners for freight, mail, and passenger service the great sum of \$150,000,000—almost equivalent to our entire customs revenues and four times the interest on our national debt. No country but a very rich and prosperous one could long do this, and such an annual expenditure has come to be a very serious drain on even our immense resources. As a matter of sentiment it jars on the national susceptibilities that nine out of every ten deep-sea ships in our harbors fly foreign flags. Moreover, it is recognized by thoughtful men that by yielding up to foreigners almost all of our carrying trade we not only strengthen our commercial competitors, but help to build up abroad sea power which may be used against us in time of war.

PERIL AS WELL AS COST.

This consideration has gained force from our very recent experience. In our war with Spain we saw great German steamship companies which have grown rich from American patronage deliberately sell several of their fast steamers to the Spanish Government, to be used to harry our coasts and our commerce. Thousands of American travelers had crossed the Atlantic in these vessels. They had run for years out of the port of New York. They had carried our goods

and our mails and had been liberally paid for it, and yet but for the quick ending of the war they would have been turned loose to "burn, sink, and destroy" every unarmed ship under the American flag, like later *Alabamas*. What was done with these German liners in 1898 is liable to be done in a similar emergency with any of the hundreds of foreign craft which almost monopolize our North Atlantic traffic.

The American people are now open-eyed as never before to these ugly facts. The restoration of the American merchant marine is one public issue where there is no party in opposition. There may seem to be such; there may seem to be opposition in the country and the press to the important legislation which has been introduced this year in Congress; but if it is closely examined it will be found that the opposition to Senator Frye's comprehensive bill relates to methods and details and not at all to purpose.

The general character of the new measure is very frankly protective. But there is something in the fundamental conditions of the world's merchant shipping which lifts it beyond the interminable controversy over tariffs. A merchant marine is so desirable, so essential, indeed, to national security as well as to national prosperity, that it is fostered and encouraged by all governments, whether they be protectionists in their general policy or adherents of free trade.

FORTY YEARS OF NEGLECT.

Among these governments, however, there has been in the past forty years one conspicuous exception. This is the United States. It is a strange fact that this era, beginning with the election of Lincoln, which has witnessed the general exaltation of the protective idea and a continuous and most successful State fostering of American manufacturing, has been a period of unprecedented neglect of American ship-owning. Ship builders, of course, have been indirectly protected by the exclusion of foreign-built ships from American registry and from the coasting trade, but the prime factor in a merchant marine is not the builder of ships, but the owner of ships. Unless the ownership and operation of merchant tonnage are profitable, no merchant vessels will be built. The first imperative step toward the creation or restoration of a merchant marine is to make ship-owning prosperous. If that is done, ship-building under such a policy as

ours will take care of itself. If it is not done, no legislative ingenuity can succeed in making business permanently active and profitable for the ship yards.

THE EXAMPLE OF THE FATHERS.

In America this has not been done. The sons have been deaf to the teachings of experience, blind to the example of the fathers. We had a merchant marine, and a great one, once. It will help us mightily to launch a new fleet if we turn back to the pages of history and note how this old fleet was constructed. We shall find that it was a protected interest, but it was the ship owners who were protected. The very first law of the first Congress under the Constitution, passed propitiously on July 4, 1789, established a discrimination of 10 per cent. in duty in favor of goods imported in American vessels, and the very next law gave American ship owners additional protection by providing that the tonnage dues of American ships should be 6 cents a ton and of foreign ships 50 cents.

The effect of this legislation was marvelous. In 1789 we had only 123,893 tons of American shipping registered for oversea trade, and only 23 per cent. of our commerce was carried in American bottoms. In 1790 our deep-sea fleet had increased to 346,254 tons and was carrying 40 per cent. of our commerce. In 1791 our tonnage was 363,110 and our proportion of carriage 55 per cent. By 1800 the American fleet had increased to 667,107 tons, with a proportion of carriage of 89 per cent. In 1810, when our trouble with England began to be acute, American tonnage registered for foreign trade had attained the high-water mark of 981,019, with a carriage of 91 per cent.

At that time we had 13.43 cubic feet of shipping *per capita* of our population—the highest point ever reached. Of course it is not to be contended that the protection given by the discriminating duties and tonnage dues was the only cause of this unexampled maritime prosperity. The Napoleonic wars which absorbed the energies and blocked the ports of Europe gave American enterprise a chance which even orders in council and Milan decrees could not wholly smother. But it is a significant fact that after the War of 1812 we were never relatively so strong upon the seas as we were before it. Immediately after peace came, in 1815, Congress, by a series of acts and treaties too elaborate to be described in a brief space, began to strip away bit by bit the protection beneath which American shipping had so wonderfully flourished. This was done with the plausible but delusive expectation that foreign governments would meet ours in a spirit

of full and honest reciprocity, and that whatever carrying trade we might lose to and from our own seaports we should regain in the open trade of the rest of the world.

THE FIRST FALLING AWAY.

The first results were far from encouraging. American tonnage registered for foreign trade swiftly shrank from 854,295 in 1815 to 581,230 in 1819. This was due in part to a shrinking of our import trade, which for a brief period after the war was enormous. Our shipping *per capita*, which in 1810, as has been said, was 13.43 cubic feet, had fallen in 1819 to 6.08 cubic feet—a decrease of one-half in the sea power of the young republic. But in 1820, with the rapid growth in population and the gradual recovery in trade and industry, there set in a slow increase in our tonnage. In 1821 it was 593,825. In other words, the American merchant fleet, now partially protected, was about as large as it had been in 1796, twenty-five years before, when it was completely protected. In 1796 American ships carried 92 per cent. of our foreign trade and represented 12.53 cubic feet *per capita*. In 1821 they carried 88 per cent. and represented 5.88 cubic feet *per capita*. Even at that time it was obvious that our merchant fleet was not growing with the natural growth of the nation.

But Congress, absorbed chiefly in other things and still bewitched by the *ignis fatuus* of a reciprocity that was not reciprocity, stripped still more protection from our maritime interests by the act of May 24, 1828. At once our merchant shipping, which in that year, with its 757,998 tons, had laboriously reached the total of 1805, shrank again as if stricken by paralysis. In 1829 our total tonnage was 592,859, or less than that of 1797. In 1830 it was 537,563, or about that of 1795.

Here again several causes were doubtless operative, but it is agreed by all observers of the day that the result of more maritime "reciprocity" was simply more disappointment. After a while our tonnage slowly revived. It rose from 538,136 in 1831 to 762,838 in 1840—the total of the year 1805 under full protection thirty-five years before. But the proportion of American commerce conveyed in American ships began to fall in 1828, and it has been falling ever since. In 1827 it was 90 per cent.; in 1840 it was 82 per cent. Even then, when all ships were of wood and the motive power was sail, foreign ship owners with their cheap-wage crews were cutting steadily into the trade that earlier laws had reserved for American ship owners and sailors.

THE CLIPPER ERA.

Our apparent increase in tonnage, which went on from 762,838 in 1840 to 1,168,707 in 1848, was to a large degree deceptive. It did not prevent a still further decrease of the American proportion of carriage from 82 to 77, to 75, and to 72 per cent. But in 1849 came an event which for a few years gave the American merchant marine the practical effect of restored protection. It was the gold development of California. American ships only could engage in the Cape Horn coastwise voyaging. Speed was at a premium. The glorious clippers, which none but Yankee skill could build or sail, appeared upon the seas, and from the friendly vantage of the California trade reached out for the old trade of the Orient. Our tonnage under the fortuitous but powerful impulse shot up to 2,159,918 in 1854. Then as the California boom began to fade there came the Crimean War, absorbing for transport service all of the spare British tonnage and much of our own, and offering for a brief period protection as potent as act of Congress or of Parliament. So the American merchant marine came up to the outbreak of our Civil War.

NEITHER WAR NOR TARIFF.

The decrease of American shipping is often erroneously said to date from 1861. Some writers attribute it to the war; others to the protective tariff. But both theories are mistaken. The real beginning of the present decline of our deep-sea tonnage dates not from 1861, but from 1855—from a year of peace for our country and not from a year of war—from a period of tariff for revenue only, not of tariff for protection.

The real truth is written indelibly in the figures of American ship-building. In 1855 we launched 2,027 vessels of 583,450 tons, and 381 of these were full-rigged ships or barks. In 1859 we launched only 875 vessels of 156,602 tons, and only 89 of these were full-rigged ships or barks for deep-sea voyages. As the present Commissioner of Navigation has well said, this was "a steady and rapid decline without equal in our marine history"—and it occurred under the most thoroughly non-protective tariff in our economic history. In 1860 there was a slight rally in American ship-building, lifting our output to 214,797 tons. But (another ominous fact) Great Britain launched in that year 301,535 tons of shipping, much of it iron and steam. In 1850 we had launched 279,255 tons and Great Britain had launched 133,695 tons. Thus in this memorable decade the positions of the two chief rivals

for the mastery of the ocean had become completely reversed.

IRON SHIP AND SUBSIDY.

Two new and powerful factors had contributed to this change—the iron ship of steam and sail and the British subsidy. Contrary to prevalent belief, the first good mercantile steamships were built in the United States. More than half a century ago a foreign authority declared that the American steam merchant fleet, which was then larger than the British fleet, was more than equal in war strength to all the navies of Europe. But Great Britain in 1839 started the Cunard line of trans-Atlantic steamships with a subsidy of \$425,000 a year, which was afterward doubled. Seven or eight years later our Government tardily followed the British example.

For a decade it was a fight of subsidy versus subsidy. The longer purse finally won. The Collins Company, the chief American line, lost two of its ships and fell into misfortune. Then the world had an illuminating example of the relative tenacity with which the two great maritime nations upheld their shipping interests. The Royal Mail Company, with a line to the West Indies, having lost several of its ships, had its subsidy promptly increased by the British Government, and was loyally tided over its period of discouragement. But soon after the loss of the *Arctic* and *Pacific* the United States Congress withdrew the American ocean mail subsidies. The Collins line was abandoned and the other American trans-Atlantic steamers disappeared.

It was a tremendous victory for British maritime protectionism. The results were promptly reflected, in 1857, 1858, and 1859, in an extraordinary shrinkage of American ship-building, and Great Britain entered upon that substantial monopoly of North Atlantic carrying which she has held to the present time.

Of course the Civil War, the destruction of 100,000 tons of our best shipping by Anglo-Confederate cruisers, and, more important still, the transfer of 750,000 tons to foreign flags, gave a vast impetus to the decline of our marine; but the great significant fact which the student of maritime history perceives is that this decline had set in long beforehand. It was as if a victim of consumption in its earlier stages had his end hastened by a blow from a saber. So long as our merchant marine was protected by national legislation it prospered. It even outlived this protection (for the so-called maritime "reciprocity" was not formally completed until 1849) because of the temporary stimulus afforded by the California gold discovery and the Crimean War.

But when this stimulus had lost its brief effect and our unprotected ships of wood were forced to compete with the iron-built or subsidized British ships, they melted like mist from the face of the ocean.

A BIT OF MARINE FICTION.

In those earlier years of keen competition practically all of the British steam tonnage was under subsidy. British iron sailing ships were protected by a discrimination of Lloyds' against which we had no power to retaliate. A very pretty fairy tale is sometimes told how, in 1849, Great Britain repealed her "antiquated" navigation act and permitted her subjects to buy and bring under the British flag the superior American-built wooden clippers, thus establishing a "free-ship" policy. This is a yarn which deceives no marines, though many landmen. As a matter of fact, Lloyds' by a technical ruling immediately made that vaunted privilege null and void, and did not lift its ban from American wooden ships until 1854, when iron ship-building in England had become firmly established, and with a long-term insurance rating for iron ships there was no longer fear of Yankee ship yards.

That plausible statement with which the extreme present-day "free-ship" argument is usually prefaced—that British merchants bought great fleets of Yankee clippers and, examining them, learned how they were built and then built others—leading up to the familiar suggestion that we in our turn ought now to go and do the same thing with British "tramps," is chiefly a figment of the imagination. Great Britain made her large purchases of American vessels long afterward, during our Civil War, having meanwhile forced down prices to a ruinous point by means of her *Florida* and *Alabama*. From 1850 to 1860, as indeed always, the great bulk of British merchant tonnage was British-built. Navigation act or no navigation act, ship-building has ever been the most jealously guarded of British industries.

It will have to be confessed that a review of the fortunes of the American merchant marine in these later years is not calculated to produce an edifying idea of the acuteness or the patriotism or the consistency of American statesmanship. Great Britain was quite within her rights in persuading us to strip off our discriminating duties and tonnage dues and embark on maritime "reciprocity." She was quite within her rights in lavishly subsidizing her steamships year after year, while we went about it in a half-hearted way and finally allowed our lines to be driven off the Atlantic. Lloyds' discriminations perhaps

were unfair blows in the back, but for this the British Government was not responsible.

WHERE THE TROUBLE LIES.

Between 1850 and 1860 our national policy was not protectionist, and the men in political power were no friends of American ship builders and ship owners. But the marvel is that in all the years since 1860, with a national policy which has protected every other living American industry and brought new industries into being, we have never applied the precedents of our earlier and successful maritime experience. Our merchant shipping is the one American interest which has been left out in the cold by a paternal government. It is the one interest which has lagged and withered.

In 1830 the proportion of American commerce carried in American ships was 89 per cent.; in 1840 it was 82 per cent.; in 1850, 72 per cent.; in 1860, 66 per cent.; in 1870, 35 per cent.; in 1880, 17 per cent.; in 1890, 12 per cent.; and in 1898, 10 per cent. There is an unpleasant regularity in this decline. The American merchant tonnage registered for foreign trade is now 837,229, while our population is 75,000,000. Away back in 1810 we had 981,019 tons, when the country had a population of 7,000,000. These figures furnish cause for sober thinking. Have we Americans lost our old aptitude for the sea? Let the echoes of Manila Bay and Santiago answer. And look upon our thriving (because protected) coastwise fleet, the best built, the best handled, and the most efficient in the world, with a tonnage three times that of England and five times that of any other nation.

THE BATTLE OF THE DOGMAS.

Our builders are not at fault; our sailors are not at fault. From the superb *St. Paul* and *St. Louis* to the clipper barkentines in the coffee trade modern American ships are as swift and efficient as they were in the old days of our maritime glory. They cost, as they always have cost, more to build and more to man, just as an American machine shop or woolen mill is apt to cost more to operate.

But we have determined that in spite of this it is worth while to have American machine shops and woolen mills and that in the long run it is profitable. There are cheerful signs of a similar determination that it is worth while to have American ships. One powerful reason why we now have no more of them is that since the close of the Civil War two sets of *doctrinaires* have been quarreling as to the kind of treatment that should be adopted to resuscitate the merchant marine. Neither party has been able to

enforce its policy; they have been just strong enough to fight each other to a standstill. The result is that between the squabbling of these *doctrinaires* nothing whatever has been accomplished.

One school clamors for "free ships;" the other for subsidies. These two ideas have come to be regarded as essentially antagonistic, as irreconcilable alternatives. Just here the *doctrinaires* have wrought their sharpest mischief. There is no valid reason why either policy should be applied with iron-like rigidity to the complete exclusion of the other. It is very much more reasonable to recognize what is sound and practical in either plan and to reject what is unnecessary and extravagant. The "free-ship" theory in its entirety might perhaps have been adopted with profit in the years before the Civil War, when Britain had cheap iron and many iron ship yards and we had almost none. But it must be acknowledged that conditions are now radically altered; that it is now America which has the cheap steel in abundance, and, moreover, several of the largest and most successful steel ship yards in the world.

A SENSIBLE COMPROMISE.

But because "free ships" have undoubtedly proved a failure in the experience of all the Continental nations and are not necessary for us, it by no means follows that we must swing to the other extreme and deny American registry absolutely to all foreign-built tonnage, as if a foreign ship *per se* were a thing accursed. It is generally believed that we drove a good bargain when we naturalized the *New York* and *Paris* and thereby secured the building in a native ship yard of the *St. Louis* and *St. Paul*, and this policy would seem to lend itself to extension—at least to such foreign-built ships as are actually owned now by American citizens. True, it will be a confounding of the *doctrinaires* on both sides, but it is full time that the *doctrinaires* dropped this shipping problem, which they have only bungled for three decades, and gave way to moderate men.

One source of the strength developed in Congress and the country by the shipping bill of Senator Frye, of Maine, is that it embodies a compromise—that it is a consensus of the views of men who are both moderate and practical. This measure brings 300,000 tons of foreign-built shipping under the American flag, but these are excellent steamers actually owned by American capital. They will be just as effective and all the handsomer for hoisting the Stars and Stripes. Their owners, in consideration of this privilege, engage to build new ships in America,

and because of the assumed lower cost of their foreign-built craft, these latter vessels will receive only a portion of the speed or tonnage subsidies provided by other sections of the bill for ships that are native American.

WHAT THE FRYE BILL DOES.

The title of this measure reads: "To promote the commerce and increase the foreign trade of the United States and to provide auxiliary cruisers, transports, and seamen for government use when necessary." Our hundred days' war with Spain demonstrated that we did not possess in our present marine a sufficient number of auxiliary ships for a contest with even a puny antagonist. We were compelled to purchase or to charter many foreign vessels after the Government had secured all available American steamers. This was a shock to the country and a salutary one. It meant that under conditions of modern war a merchant marine is more indispensable than ever, and that we lack this auxiliary of national defense.

Naturally, as the motive of the Frye bill is in part defensive, it sets a premium upon merchant steamers of high speed like the twenty-one-knot ships of the American trans-Atlantic line and the eighteen-knot ships now building at Newport News for the Pacific Mail service. The bill adopts as the basis of its protection a subsidy of 1.5 cents a gross ton for each 100 miles of the first 1,500 miles and 1 cent a gross ton for each 100 miles above 1,500 miles covered by American vessels, sail or steam, in the foreign trade. This subsidy is intended as an offset to the greater cost of construction and the higher rate of wages and maintenance of American ships—in other words, the cost of operation. Elaborate calculations by the Treasury Department show that it will almost exactly accomplish the purpose.

SPEED AND TONNAGE PREMIUMS.

But this would not enable our ship owners to meet the competition of foreign steamship lines which, in addition to a natural advantage in the way of lower labor cost, have the artificial advantage of subsidies and bounties from their governments. Great Britain and Germany thus protect their fast mail lines. Several other nations subsidize all their steam lines, fast or slow, and also their sailing vessels. To offset these subventions and to give our steam marine the stimulus necessary to attract more American capital into the trade, the Frye bill provides for "steam vessels which may be suitable for carrying the mails of the United States and as auxiliaries to the power of the United States in time

of war or other need" an additional subsidy based on speed and tonnage. For ships of the class of the *St. Louis* or *St. Paul*, of more than 8,000 tons and twenty-one knots or over, this subsidy will be 2.3 cents a ton for every 100 miles sailed, and for twenty-knot ships 2 cents a ton. For vessels of 3,000 tons or over the subsidy will be 1.8 cents a ton for every 100 miles sailed by nineteen-knot ships, 1.6 cents for eighteen-knot ships, 1.4 cents for seventeen-knot ships, and so on down to the slower steamers, which will have 1 cent a ton. But this speed and tonnage premium is to be given to no steamer below 2,000 tons gross tonnage, the modern limit for efficiency in oversea trade, and all steamers receiving subsidy must carry the United States mails free of charge.

The subsidies offered by the Frye bill are to be paid for twenty years, the period for which a well-constructed vessel usually retains a first-class rating. This twenty-year guarantee is very little longer than the duration of foreign subsidy contracts, and it is believed to be essential if capital is to be induced to undertake the risks involved in new shipping enterprises. But in order to receive a subsidy owners of existing shipping must engage to build at least 25 per cent. of new tonnage in this country, thus insuring an immediate impulse to ship-building as well as to navigation.

Foreign-built ships actually owned to the extent of 80 per cent., or in certain special cases less than this, by American citizens are admitted to American registry by the terms of the Frye bill on these two conditions, that such foreign-built ships shall receive only 50 per cent. of the subsidy paid to American-built ships, and that their owners shall engage to construct within a specified time an equivalent tonnage in American ship yards. This provision, it is understood, will bring to the American flag the British ships of the International Navigation Company and the Belgian ships of the Red Star line, with several other steamers of excellent character.

WHAT THE COST WILL BE.

Of course no measure so progressive and comprehensive as this bill of Senator Frye's could, in a country of free speech, entirely escape criticism. It has been objected, for instance, that it conferred undue favor upon a few great corporations owning very fast steamships which carry mail and passengers, but relatively little freight, and that therefore it would be of small benefit to American commerce. To this the friends of the measure have effectively replied by an amendment limiting to \$2,000,000 the subsidies which can be paid in any one year to swift steamers of

twenty or twenty-one knots. They insist that this will provide an adequate Atlantic mail service. By another amendment the minimum requirement for the speed premium for steamers has been reduced from the original figure of fourteen knots to ten knots, in order to encourage the production of a relatively slow but very efficient and desirable type of cargo vessel for the long voyages of the Pacific trade, where coal economy is all-important.

To the accusation that the total cost of the subsidies would be excessive, that it would be a serious drain upon the Treasury and an extravagant price to pay for the recovery of our carrying trade, the framers of the Frye bill have answered in a stipulation that the annual expenditure shall never exceed \$9,000,000. They submit careful estimates to show that the net cost the first year with our present tonnage will be only \$2,700,000, and that in order to earn as much as \$9,000,000 in subsidies our present deep-sea marine will have to be multiplied several times over.

AS TO BRITISH SUBSIDIES.

So far as the speed and tonnage premiums for fast large steamers are concerned, it is very easy to discern that the American subsidy rate or degree of protection is no larger than that now granted by the "mistress of the seas." The Navigation Bureau of the Treasury Department has prepared a table showing the tonnage actually employed on the chief British ocean mail routes, the pay which this tonnage actually receives from the British Government, and the pay which steamers of the same type would receive under the speed and tonnage laws of the Frye bill:

Companies.	British Subsidies.	American Subsidies.
Peninsular and Oriental.....	\$1,660,297	\$1,146,941
Orient and Pacific Steam.....	413,100	465,531
D. Currie and Union.....	456,840	498,410
Royal Mail.....	291,600	196,742
Canadian Pacific.....	291,600	140,586
Cunard and White Star.....	796,029	1,132,722
	\$3,900,466	\$3,580,932

The Cunard and White Star lines, it should be remembered, receive also in mail pay about \$180,000 every year from the United States. In this enumeration of subsidized British steamers all but nine of the deep-sea vessels of sixteen knots and more under the British flag are included. This illustrates the liberality with which Great Britain fosters and protects the best ships of her merchant fleet.

PRICE LITTLE, GAIN GREAT.

This American legislation is very closely guarded. It bestows help upon our merchant marine

only where our ships are harassed by state-aided or low-wage foreign competition. It does not affect our coasting trade, or our lake trade, or our trade with Canada, Hawaii, or Puerto Rico. No ships can be sailed for the subsidy merely, for, as Senator Frye has shown, this would not amount to one-fourth of the lowest estimate of operating expenses in ballast—and no ship owner would pay 75 cents for an opportunity to earn 25 cents. Vessels qualifying for a subsidy must be wholly officered by American citizens and be manned by crews at least one-fourth of whom are Americans, with a certain number of American boys as apprentices. Thus the merchant fleet will develop a genuine naval reserve.

The Frye bill simply aims to extend in another form a protection equivalent to that bestowed through discriminating duties and tonnage dues

in the first half century of our national existence. This earlier protection, as this paper has shown, was entirely effective and very profitable. Of course our treaties of reciprocity prevent us from renewing the protection in its original shape. The average American will be likely to agree with ex-Senator Edmunds that even \$9,000,000 would be a small price to pay for a chance to recover some of the \$150,000,000 which now goes out of the country every year into the pockets of foreign ship owners.

Whatever differences of opinion there may be over the exact height of tariff schedules, this proposition to give fair play (for that is essentially what it is) to the American interest that is at once least prosperous and most deserving appeals very strongly to the patriotic impulses of our people of all shades of party faith.

THE POLICY OF STEAMSHIP SUBSIDIES.

BY PRESIDENT ARTHUR T. HADLEY, OF YALE UNIVERSITY.

TWELVE years ago there was under discussion in Congress, in the newspapers, and among economists and financiers a variety of practical problems growing out of the existence of the large surplus revenue. At that time the editor of this REVIEW prepared and published a little volume entitled "The National Revenues," which contained a number of chapters specially contributed by students of political economy and finance, nearly all of whom were professors in universities and colleges. The chapter contributed by Professor (now President) Hadley, of Yale, dealt with "Steamship Subsidies as a Means of Reducing the Revenues." Apropos of the pending discussion in Congress, the editor had occasion last month to read over again Dr. Hadley's observations, and was struck with the fact that they seemed as applicable in the year 1900 as in 1888. The volume being now out of print, President Hadley was asked to give his approval to the republication of his chapter in the present number of the REVIEW. In order to make it clear that his general position has undergone no change, Dr. Hadley writes the following letter:

YALE UNIVERSITY, NEW HAVEN, CONN.,
February 8, 1900.

MY DEAR MR. SHAW:

Let me thank you for your letter of yesterday.

You are fully authorized to say, in connection with the reprint of the article, that my views with regard to the granting of large subsidies have remained unchanged. What constitutes a large subsidy in a par-

ticular case is, of course, a matter for the technical consideration of experts; but I believe that in this department of government activity, as in others, a policy of economy is the wisest for us.

Perhaps the safest thing for you to do would be to reprint the paragraph on page 443 of my "Economics." I inclose herewith copy of the paragraph in question.

Sincerely yours,

ARTHUR T. HADLEY.

The book to which reference is made in the foregoing letter was published by the Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons in 1896, under the title "Economics: Relations Between Private Property and Public Welfare." Dr. Hadley's work as an economist certainly needs no indorsement; yet some of our readers may be grateful for this incidental reminder that before becoming so deeply absorbed in the large and varied problems that now confront him as administrative head of the great university at New Haven, Dr. Hadley had embodied the results of years of deep thinking, wide reading, and close observation in a very compact and able volume dealing with the practical problems as well as with the theory of economics—a volume that a great many American voters might read to their advantage in this Presidential year. The paragraph from his book to which Dr. Hadley refers reads as follows:

These subsidized steamers are useful in providing a reserve in case of war. The commercial success of the policy is more doubtful, whether we look at its effect on the profit of the ship owners or upon the commerce of the nation. French experience seems to indicate that

the system of bounties, by calling unnecessary ships into operation, diminishes the regular earnings of the business to a degree for which the government bounty furnishes scant compensation; while the old proverb that "trade follows the flag" is hardly borne out by recent events. It may have been true in old times that goods went where ships most desired to take them, but with modern facilities of communication the owners of the goods make up their minds where they want them

to go, and the ships must take them there or nowhere. All things considered, it would be hard to show any commercial gains from subsidies which compensate for the sums spent in this way.

Without further preface we reproduce Dr. Hadley's argument of 1888 against steamship subsidies as a means of relieving congested public treasuries.—THE EDITOR.]

SUBSIDIES AS A MEANS OF REDUCING THE REVENUES.

THE United States has in two instances tried the policy of steamship subsidies on a large scale—with the Collins line in 1850–1858 and with the Pacific Mail in 1865–1875. In neither case was the result satisfactory.

The subsidy to the Collins line was in large measure due to the efforts of Mr. King, of Georgia, for some time chairman of the House Committee on Naval Affairs. As early as 1841, only two years after the first contract of the English Government with Samuel Cunard, he urged the United States to follow the example of England. The first act of Congress on the subject was passed in 1845; the amounts devoted to the payment of steamship lines were gradually increased until 1852, when they amounted to nearly \$2,000,000 annually. At the close of that year there were American steamship lines running from New York to Liverpool, Havre, and Bremen; also from various American ports to the West Indies and the Isthmus of Panama, with connections thence to Oregon.

Much the most important of these enterprises was the Collins line, which made fortnightly trips from New York to Liverpool, for which it received a subsidy of \$858,000. The history of this line is an instructive one, because it shows clearly the dangers of the subsidy system even under the most favorable circumstances. The boats were designed, built, and managed by thoroughly competent men. They were the finest specimens of steamship construction then existing; they were probably the best sea-going wooden steamships which have ever been built. They were much more comfortable and much faster than the English boats with which they came into competition; and though the Cunard line was forced by the influence of their American rivals to build newer and better boats than they had before, they were far from equaling the Collins line in speed or comfort. Nor was the American line dishonestly managed. Mr. Collins was largely influenced by patriotic motives. So far from making any money out of his connection with this enterprise, it ultimately caused his financial ruin.

But the fact that there was no intentional dishonesty makes the absence of good economy all the more apparent. The managers believed that they had the public treasury to fall back upon. They indulged in all sorts of expenditures, necessary and unnecessary. Changes were made while the vessels were in process of construction which greatly increased their cost, in many cases without corresponding advantage. The capital stock was insufficient. The company was heavily in debt from the first. The care in management which was the only thing that could have enabled them to carry this load of debt was altogether wanting. If any one desired an illustration of the danger of paralyzing individual thrift by government aid, he could hardly find a better one than the early history of the Collins line. Under such circumstances the apparent prosperity of the business could not last long. The rage for making fast passages rather than safe ones occasioned the loss of two steamers; a change of feeling in Congress caused the subsidy to be withdrawn, and the company was found to have nothing left to stand on.

The Pacific Mail had a much longer life; but its history was in many respects worse than that of the Collins line. It was less harmed by the discontinuance of the earlier subsidies in 1858 than by the renewal of the policy in 1865. The \$500,000 a year which was paid them for their China service by the contract of 1865 proved but a poor compensation for the unsound methods which were introduced into the management—in part, apparently, as the result of that contract. Up to 1865 the Pacific Mail had been a sound concern. It shares stood above par. After that it fell into the hands of speculators; it lost 9 vessels in as many years; its shares dropped below 40. An additional subsidy of another \$500,000 was voted in 1872. But the company was unable to get the new vessels ready for service within the time stipulated; and while the Government was hesitating what to do, a series of disclosures showed that the contract of 1872 had been obtained by wholesale corruption. Public opinion was strongly aroused against the

system. The contracts of 1865 were allowed to expire and were not renewed. It was felt that the trade which had been encouraged had not been that of merchants in China, but of speculators and lobbyists at home.

Such facts as these furnish a strong argument against the attempt to build up an American steam marine by means of subsidies. But there are special circumstances which render the lesson doubly important at the present time.

In the first place, the difficulties of building up an American carrying trade in this manner to-day are exceptionally great. The cost of ships in America is greater than it is elsewhere. No foreign-built ship is allowed to carry the American flag. Our ship owners are thus compelled to buy in a dear market and then compete on even terms with those whose plant is cheaper. But this is not all. Even if we were allowed, by a change in the navigation laws, to buy our ships wherever we pleased, we should not be on an equality with our competitors in this matter. In order that American capital may be attracted into the foreign carrying trade, it is necessary that the rate of interest obtainable in that business should be about as high as that which can be had in other lines of business which offer chances for investment. That is not the case at the present time. Shipping profits have been cut down by large investments of European capital, artificially stimulated by subsidies. They have been so much cut down that there has been for two or three years practically no money to be made in the business.

If the current rate of interest in France on business ventures of a certain class is 5 per cent. and in America 7 per cent., America cannot compete with France on equal terms in that business unless she has a special advantage in the conduct of the business equal to 2 per cent. on the invested capital. Forty years ago we had such an advantage, on account of our superior facilities for building ships and superior skill in sailing them. To-day both of those advantages have been neutralized. Iron has been substituted for wood, steam for sail. (Nothing short of a subsidy equal to the difference in current rates of profit in the two countries would put us on an equality in this matter; and that would only do it in case France gave no subsidies at all.) But France does give subsidies, on a very large scale—so large as to have stimulated an overproduction of French ships, which has done the French nation much more harm than good. To accomplish anything effective we should have to counterbalance the difference in the rate of profit and the French subsidies put together. Were this done we should doubtless have a great many

foreign steamship lines of our own; but they would be running for the subsidy rather than for the trade.

There is a tradition that "trade follows the flag;" that where our ships run we shall develop a trade. This may have been true before the invention of the telegraph, when the cargo was so often a matter of private enterprise on the part of the ship owner. But there can be no doubt that it is every day less and less true; and it is probably furthest from the truth on those lines of communication where subsidized steamships would be likely to run. The notion that such lines would act as drummers for New York houses has very little basis in fact.

If, under this condition of things, we are asked to grant steamship subsidies as a patriotic way of getting rid of the surplus, the presumption is strongly against the wisdom of any such policy. In all the affairs of life, whether public or private, it is a dangerous thing to spend money simply because you have it. It is almost certain that such money will be unwisely spent. This is conspicuously true of government expenditures. The really wise ones have not been made where an overflowing public treasury was used to help individual enterprise, but where some specific need was felt, and the Government set about to have that need met in the most efficient way.

England has at times given large steamship subsidies, but she has done it on business principles. It was a political necessity for her to have communication with her colonies, and to have steamships which could furnish her with a naval reserve and a transport service in case of war. In order to do this she had to pay for it. She tried to pay as little as she could for the service rendered; but she could not, without political suicide, dispense with such service. She had the same reasons for subsidizing steamships that we have for maintaining postal communication on lines which do not pay. It was the same reason which has led Germany and Russia to build military railroads or which led us to grant liberal aid to the Union Pacific in 1862 and 1864. In all these cases it was a matter of business for the Government to secure its end. The fact that the returns could not all be measured in dollars and cents did not prevent its being sound business policy. In fact, it furnished a strong reason why the Government might properly make the expenditure, because there was an advantage to be gained of which individual enterprise could not reap the benefit.

But where subsidies have been given, as has been recently the case in France or as was done in America in the instances already described,

as a means of encouraging private commercial enterprise, it has not proved good business policy. It has caused waste instead of economy, loss rather than gain; it has not proved a source of naval strength or commercial prosperity for the nation which has adopted it. It has turned out to be simply an inducement to extravagance.

It is undoubtedly desirable to reduce the treasury surplus; but why? Just because it offers a temptation to extravagant uses of the money.

To make the existence of such a surplus a justification for subsides is simply to court the evil of which we are afraid. If we spend our money recklessly we shall not have so much left to spend, and in that way the immediate danger may be diminished; but meantime we shall have done the very harm which we wished to avoid. More than this, we shall have laid the foundation for future evil of the same sort; for any such lavish expenditure of money conceals the need of wise measures to prevent its accumulation.

THE EMANCIPATION OF SLAVES UNDER MOSLEM LAW.

BY PROF. D. B. MACDONALD, OF HARTFORD THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY.

IN the President's message an outline is given of the agreement under which the sovereignty of the archipelago of Sulu has passed to the United States. Article X. deals provisionally with the emancipation of slaves, and provides that any slave shall have the right to purchase freedom by paying to his master his market value. It may be of interest, in view of this agreement, to sketch the legal position of slaves as to emancipation under Moslem law.

The Sultan of Sulu and his subjects are Mohammedans of the legal rite of ash-Shafi'i. There are four generally recognized schools of jurisprudence in orthodox Islam—the Malikites, the Hanafites, the Hanbalites, and the Shafi'ites. To this last, founded by the Imam Mohammed ibn Idris ash-Shafi'i, who died at Cairo in January, A.D. 820, the Mohammedans of Sulu, nominally at least, adhere. It is to the law books, then, of this school that appeal must be taken in the event of any dispute, and it will easily be seen that an exact knowledge of this code is a necessity for us in our dealings with the people of the Sulu Archipelago. The following is a very brief outline of the attitude of this code toward the emancipation of slaves:

There are four ways by which a slave may be emancipated: (1) by the simple word of the master, the emancipation following at once; (2) by promise, to come into effect after the death of the master; (3) by a writing on the petition of the slave; (4) of necessity on the death of the master in the case of a slave woman who has borne a child to him.

1. Immediate emancipation is an act of piety which is highly commended. It can be performed by any master who is in legal control

of his property, and it can take place through some direct expression, such as "Thou art free," even though the master does not intend what he says. If a metaphorical expression is used intention must go with it. Emancipation of part of a slave involves emancipating the whole. If the slave is a joint possession, the master who emancipates his part must, if he is a man of wealth, buy the other share so as to emancipate the whole slave. If he is poor the slave is only part free. Emancipation involves as a consequence a state of clientage. If an emancipated slave dies without heirs, then his property passes to his former master, or if he is dead to the males of his house. But this right of inheritance cannot be sold or gifted.

2. It is also a pious act for a master to promise a slave freedom at death. For the rest of the master's life the slave remains at his absolute disposal, but at his death, if the slave still belongs to him, he is free. It is, however, open to the master to sell his slave, and that annuls the promise. Further, a man can dispose of his property in this way only to the extent to which the law allows him to dispose of it by will—i.e., one-third. If all his property consists of three slaves he can only promise freedom to one; or rather the law after his death will only permit the emancipation of one—two-thirds must go to the heirs.

3. A slave may petition his master to give him a writing promising him freedom after he has paid a certain fixed sum at certain fixed terms, at least two in number. It is a highly approved action for the master to assent. But there are conditions. The slave must be trustworthy and capable of earning money. If the

master is in health when he gives the writing he may in this way do away with all his possessions—i.e., if he possesses slaves only he may give such writings to them all, but if he is sick he can only do it to the extent of one-third of his possessions. The contract is then binding absolutely on the master, but the slave may give it up at will. The slave has a right to employ freely all the property he has. The master must remit a certain amount to him of the stipulated sum, but the slave is free only after the sum has been paid up, less the amount remitted.

4. If a slave woman bear a child to her master he is forbidden to sell, pledge, or give her away during his life, and she is free at his death. She continues to be his slave, but inalienable. Her freedom follows at his death before any debts or legacies are paid, even though she has formed his entire property.

In the three last cases, just as in the first, the right of patronage exists.

It will be noticed that the third of these methods is strikingly similar to that described in the President's message. The principal difference is that the treaty with the Sultan of Sulu makes it incumbent on the master to accept the price of his slave, while Moslem law according to the code of ash-Shafi'i regards it only as highly approved. But all the codes have not viewed the matter in the same way. The basis is Koran, xxiv. 33: "And those who desire a writing, of those whom your right hands possess, give them a writing if ye know good in them, and give them of the wealth of God which he has given to you." This has been interpreted by some commentators and by one of the legal schools as an absolute command; by the majority of the commentators and by three of the schools as a simple recommendation. Ahmad ibn Hanbal, the founder of the Hanbalites, who died A.D. 855, following the laws of strictly literal interpretation which he professed, made the command absolute, but left it open to the master to exact whatever sum he chose. It may be safely said, however, that the passage in the Koran on its face meaning is an absolutely sufficient basis for the position taken by this country in the treaty, quite apart from our own views of the wrong of slavery. Unless we go further, we have only gone as far as Mohammed himself.

But there is another side to this, as to almost all questions of Moslem law. The four schools of jurisprudence spoken of above state what may be called the canon law of Islam. This canon law is based on four things: the Koran, traditions of the practice of Mohammed, analogical deduction from these, and the agreement of the

Moslem community. It governs all the life of a Moslem, public and private, and prescribes his course of conduct under any contingency. A Moslem must belong to one or other of these four schools, which are regarded as having equal rights and validity. It can easily be understood that such a system as this must in the end break down. Laws suited to the patriarchal conditions of early Islam were a failure when applied in the broader world. The will of absolute rulers could not brook any restraint, and the law that opposed that will went to the wall. So there entered at a very early date a split in the legal life of the Moslems, and now no Moslem believes in the possibility of the full observance of this canon law. It was observed once, they will say, for thirty years after the death of Mohammed, under "the four just Khalifas," and it will be observed in the reign of righteousness to come in the future under the Mahdi; for the present Islam is ruled by kings who act as they see fit.

The result of this is that in all Moslem countries there are two separate courts of justice. The one administers canon law and has jurisdiction over personal and family affairs only. It regulates marriage, divorce, and inheritance, and gives advice to those who seek it on the ceremonial law. The other has charge of all the more public side of life, and pays little or no attention in its decisions to the arguments and claims of the canon lawyers. Yet in spite of this these continue to teach and develop their absolutely theoretical system in all its branches. When the Mahdi does come he will find lawyers who know the true law of the Moslem community. In the meantime they are revered by the people as the exponents of sacred things and endured by the rulers, so long, at least, as they do not teach flat rebellion, but are content with reproving the shortcomings of their time and with lamenting the good old days.

But it must not be imagined that this doubling of law courts is in any way a result of European influence. It sprang up in the bosom of Islam itself, and is to be found in Morocco and in Mecca, where there can be no thought of such working. Being native in this way to Islam, it is the one hope of the future.

It will be seen, then, that it is possible, on good Moslem precedent, to act with a very free hand in legal matters in dealing with the people of Sulu so long as there is no interference with the private and personal side of their life. Slavery, being a more public matter, can be done away with to-morrow, but the laws governing such things as marriage and inheritance can only be touched with the greatest caution.

THE TEXT OF TWO MUCH-DISCUSSED TREATIES.

THE treaty signed by the Secretary of State, Mr. John Hay, and the British ambassador, Lord Pauncefote, on February 5, was on the same day transmitted to the Senate by President McKinley, where it was at once read and referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. The treaty is entitled: "A Convention Between the United States and Great Britain to Facilitate the Construction of a Ship Canal to Connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and to Remove any Objection Which Might Arise Out of the Convention Commonly Called the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty."

Wide difference of opinion has already been developed, both in Congress and outside of it, touching the wisdom of this arrangement which places the proposed Nicaragua Canal under the joint political auspices of as many nations as may choose to sign the treaty, and expressly forbids the United States, as owner of the canal, to fortify it or to use it on more favorable terms when at war than it accords to its own enemies.

The subject is too important to be disposed of hastily. It was said a few days after the instrument was signed that the necessary two-thirds majority of the Senate had already been secured on its behalf, and that it would be ratified immediately. But it is only reasonable to suppose that abundance of time will be taken for mature consideration, and that members of Congress will be glad to know the views of their constituents. For the convenience, therefore, of our readers, we present herewith the exact text of the new treaty.

As equally necessary to the understanding of the questions involved, we also reprint the treaty which our Secretary of State, Mr. John M. Clayton, and the English minister at Washington, Mr. Henry Lytton Bulwer, signed on April 19, 1850.

TEXT OF THE HAY-PAUNCEFOTE TREATY.

The United States of America and Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India, being desirous to facilitate the construction of a ship canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and to that end to remove any objection which may arise out of the Convention of April 19, 1850, commonly called the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, to the construction of such canal under the auspices of the Government of the United States, without impairing the "general principle" of neutralization established in Article VIII. of that Convention, have for that purpose appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the United States, John Hay, Secretary of State of the United States of America,

And Her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India, The Right Honble. Lord Pauncefote, G. C. B., G. C. M. G., Her Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the United States;

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers, which were found to be in due and proper form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE I.—It is agreed that the canal may be constructed under the auspices of the Government of the United States, either directly at its own cost, or by gift or loan of money to individuals or corporations or through subscription to or purchase of stock or shares, and that, subject to the provisions of the present Convention, the said Government shall have and enjoy all the rights incident to such construction, as well as the exclusive right of providing for the regulation and management of the canal.

ARTICLE II.—The High Contracting Parties, desiring to preserve and maintain the "general principle" of neutralization established in Article VIII. of the Clayton-Bulwer Convention, adopt, as the basis of such neutralization, the following rules, substantially as embodied in the convention between Great Britain and certain other Powers, signed at Constantinople, October 29, 1888, for the Free Navigation of the Suez Maritime Canal, that is to say:

1. The canal shall be free and open, in time of war as in time of peace, to the vessels of commerce and of war of all nations, on terms of entire equality, so that there shall be no discrimination against any nation or its citizens or subjects in respect of the conditions or charges of traffic, or otherwise.

2. The canal shall never be blockaded, nor shall any right of war be exercised nor any act of hostility be committed within it.

3. Vessels of war of a belligerent shall not revictual nor take any stores in the canal except so far as may be strictly necessary; and the transit of such vessels through the canal shall be effected with the least possible delay, in accordance with the regulations in force, and with only such intermission as may result from the necessities of the service.

Prizes shall be in all respects subject to the same rules as vessels of war of the belligerents.

4. No belligerent shall embark or disembark troops, munitions of war or warlike materials in the canal except in case of accidental hindrance of the transit, and in such case the transit shall be resumed with all possible despatch.

5. The provisions of this article shall apply to waters adjacent to the canal, within three marine miles of either end. Vessels of war of a belligerent shall not remain in such waters longer than twenty-four hours at any one time except in case of distress, and in such case shall depart as soon as possible; but a vessel of war of one belligerent shall not depart within twenty-four hours from the departure of a vessel of war of the other belligerent.

6. The plant, establishments, buildings, and all works necessary to the construction, maintenance and operation of the canal shall be deemed to be part thereof, for the purposes of this Convention, and in time of war as in time of peace shall enjoy complete immunity from

attack or injury by belligerents and from acts calculated to impair their usefulness as part of the canal.

7. No fortifications shall be erected commanding the canal or the waters adjacent. The United States, however, shall be at liberty to maintain such military police along the canal as may be necessary to protect it against lawlessness and disorder.

ARTICLE III.—The High Contracting Parties will, immediately upon the exchange of the ratifications of this Convention, bring it to the notice of the other Powers and invite them to adhere to it.

ARTICLE IV.—The present Convention shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by Her Britannic Majesty; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Washington or at London within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

In faith whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries, have signed this Convention and thereunto affixed their seals.

Done in duplicate at Washington, the fifth day of February, in the year of Our Lord one thousand nine hundred.

JOHN HAY.

PAUNCEFOTE.

The following is the full text of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. It was drawn with reference to a project on foot in 1850, but not carried out. It contemplated the adherence of other nations, but the meaning of some of its provisions almost at once fell into dispute between England and the United States, and a majority of American and English statesmen and writers on the question have at one time or another, either in words or in deeds, contributed to the popular impression that the agreement was inoperative or moribund, and might fairly enough be omitted from the list of the treaties of the United States now in active effect. Our Government has made repeated negotiations with Nicaragua that were in conflict with the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and innumerable bills in Congress have from time to time ignored it without arousing any official protest from England.

TEXT OF THE CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY.

The United States of America and Her Britannic Majesty, being desirous of consolidating the relations of amity which so happily subsist between them, by setting forth and fixing in a convention their views and intentions with reference to any means of communication by ship-canal which may be constructed between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans by the way of the river San Juan de Nicaragua and either or both of the Lakes of Nicaragua or Managua, to any port or place on the Pacific Ocean, the President of the United States has conferred full powers on John M. Clayton, Secretary of State of the United States, and Her Britannic Majesty on the Right Honorable Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer, a member of Her Majesty's most honorable privy council, knight commander of the most honorable Order of the Bath, and envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of Her Britannic Majesty to the United States, for the aforesaid purpose; and the said plenipotentiaries having exchanged their full powers, which

were found to be in proper form, have agreed to the following articles:

ARTICLE I.—The Governments of the United States and Great Britain hereby declare that neither the one nor the other will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over the said ship canal; agreeing that neither will ever erect or maintain any fortifications commanding the same or in the vicinity thereof, or occupy, or fortify or colonize, or assume, or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any part of Central America; nor will either make use of any protection which either affords or may afford, or any alliance which either has or may have to or with any state or people, for the purpose of erecting or maintaining any such fortifications, or of occupying, fortifying, or colonizing Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any part of Central America, or of assuming or exercising dominion over the same; nor will the United States or Great Britain take advantage of any intimacy, or use any alliance, connection, or influence that either may possess with any state or government through whose territory the said canal may pass, for the purpose of acquiring or holding, directly or indirectly, for the citizens or subjects of the one, any rights or advantages in regard to commerce or navigation through the said canal which shall not be offered on the same terms to the citizens or subjects of the other.

ARTICLE II.—Vessels of the United States or Great Britain traversing the said canal shall, in case of war between the contracting parties, be exempted from blockade, detention, or capture by either of the belligerents; and this provision shall extend to such a distance from the two ends of the said canal as may hereafter be found expedient to establish.

ARTICLE III.—In order to secure the construction of the said canal, the contracting parties engage that if any such canal shall be undertaken upon fair and equitable terms by any parties having the authority of the local government or governments through whose territory the same may pass, then the persons employed in making the said canal, and their property used, or to be used, for that object, shall be protected, from the commencement of the said canal to its completion, by the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, from unjust detention, confiscation, seizure, or any violence whatsoever.

ARTICLE IV.—The contracting parties will use whatever influence they respectively exercise with any state, states, or governments, possessing or claiming to possess any jurisdiction or right over the territory which the said canal shall traverse, or which shall be near the waters applicable thereto, in order to induce such states or governments to facilitate the construction of the said canal by every means in their power. And furthermore, the United States and Great Britain agree to use their good offices, wherever or however it may be most expedient, in order to procure the establishment of two free ports, one at each end of the said canal.

ARTICLE V.—The contracting parties further engage, that when the said canal shall have been completed, they will protect it from interruption, seizure, or unjust confiscation, and that they will guarantee the neutrality thereof, so that the said canal may forever be open and free, and the capital invested therein secure. Nevertheless, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, in according their protection to the construction of the said canal, and guaranteeing its

neutrality and security when completed, always understand that this protection and guarantee are granted conditionally, and may be withdrawn by both governments, or either government, if both governments, or either government, should deem that the persons or company undertaking or managing the same adopt or establish such regulations concerning the traffic thereupon as are contrary to the spirit and intention of this convention, either by making unfair discriminations in favor of the commerce of one of the contracting parties over the commerce of the other, or by imposing oppressive exactions or unreasonable tolls upon the passengers, vessels, goods, wares, merchandise, or other articles. Neither party, however, shall withdraw the aforesaid protection and guarantee without first giving six months' notice to the other.

ARTICLE VI.—The contracting parties in this convention engage to invite every state with which both or either have friendly intercourse to enter into stipulations with them similar to those which they have entered into with each other, to the end that all other states may share in the honor and advantage of having contributed to a work of such general interest and importance as the canal herein contemplated. And the contracting parties likewise agree that each shall enter into treaty stipulations with such of the Central American States as they may deem advisable, for the purpose of more effectually carrying out the great design of this convention, namely, that of constructing and maintaining the said canal as a ship communication between the two oceans for the benefit of mankind, on equal terms to all, and of protecting the same; and they also agree, that the good offices of either shall be employed, when requested by the other, in aiding and assisting the negotiation of such treaty stipulations; and should any differences arise as to right or property over the territory through which the said canal shall pass between the states or governments of Central America, and such differences should in any way impede or obstruct the execution of the said canal, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain will use their good offices to settle such differences in the manner best suited to promote the interests of the said canal, and to strengthen the bonds of friendship and alliance which exist between the contracting parties.

ARTICLE VII.—It being desirable that no time should be unnecessarily lost in commencing and constructing the said canal, the Governments of the United States and Great Britain determine to give their support and encouragement to such persons or company as may first offer to commence the same, with the necessary capital, the consent of the local authorities, and on such principles as accord with the spirit and intention of this convention; and if any persons or company should already have, with any state through which the proposed ship canal may pass, a contract for the construction of such a canal as that specified in this con-

vention, to the stipulations of which contract neither of the contracting parties in this convention have any just cause to object, and the said persons or company shall moreover have made preparations, and expended time, money, and trouble, on the faith of such contract, it is hereby agreed that such persons or company shall have a priority of claim over every other person, persons, or company to the protection of the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, and be allowed a year from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this convention for concluding their arrangements, and presenting evidence of sufficient capital subscribed to accomplish the contemplated undertaking; it being understood that if, at the expiration of the aforesaid period, such persons or company be not able to commence and carry out the proposed enterprise, then the Governments of the United States and Great Britain shall be free to afford their protection to any other persons or company that shall be prepared to commence and proceed with the construction of the canal in question.

ARTICLE VIII.—The Governments of the United States and Great Britain having not only desired, in entering into this convention, to accomplish a particular object, but also to establish a general principle, they hereby agree to extend their protection, by treaty stipulations, to any other practicable communications, whether by canal or railway, across the isthmus which connects North and South America, and especially to the interoceanic communications, should the same prove to be practicable, whether by canal or railway, which are now proposed to be established by the way of Tehuantepec or Panama. In granting, however, their joint protection to any such canals or railways as are by this article specified, it is always understood by the United States and Great Britain that the parties constructing or owning the same shall impose no other charges or conditions of traffic thereupon than the aforesaid Governments shall approve of as just and equitable; and that the same canals or railways, being open to the citizens and subjects of the United States and Great Britain on equal terms, shall also be open on like terms to the citizens and subjects of every other state which is willing to grant thereto such protection as the United States and Great Britain engage to afford.

ARTICLE IX.—The ratifications of this convention shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from this day, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this convention, and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done at Washington, the nineteenth day of April, anno Domini one thousand eight hundred and fifty.

JOHN M. CLAYTON. [L. S.]

HENRY LYTTON BULWER. [L. S.]



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

RICHARD OLNEY ON OUR FOREIGN POLICY.

IN the *Atlantic Monthly* for March ex-Secretary Richard Olney contributes the opening article, a sketch of the "Growth of Our Foreign Policy." Mr. Olney says that though historians will probably assign the abandonment of the isolation policy of the United States to the Spanish war, the change was inevitable, had been long preparing, and could not have been long delayed. So true was this that the struggle over Cuba probably only hastened the expansion of the duties of this country "by an inconsiderable period." Mr. Olney considers that if the acquisition of Cuba by the United States had not come in 1898 it would have come in the next few years; if without war, then by a concession from Spain more or less compulsory in character.

CUBA NOW OURS IN EFFECT.

"It may be thought at first blush that to speak of 'the acquisition of Cuba by the United States' as a fact accomplished is inaccurate. But the objection is technical and the expression conveys the substantial truth, notwithstanding a resolution of Congress which, ill-advised and futile at the time of its passage, if now influential at all, is simply prejudicing the interests of Cuba and the United States alike. No such resolution can refute the logic of the undisputed facts or should be allowed to impede the natural march of events. To any satisfactory solution of the Cuban problem it is vital that Cuba's political conditions should be permanently settled. The spectacle now exhibited of a President and his Cabinet sitting in Washington with an appointee and sort of imitation President sitting with his Cabinet in the Antilles must have an end, the sooner the better, and will end when Congress ceases to ignore its functions and makes Cuba in point of law what she already is in point of fact—namely, United States territory. Were there to be a plebiscite on the subject, such a consummation would be favored by practically the entire body of the intelligence and wealth of the island. Until it is reached capital will hesitate to go there, emigration from this country will be insignificant, and Cuba will fail to enter upon that new era of progress and development, industrial, political, and social, which is relied upon to justify and ought to justify the substitution of American for Spanish control."

THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Olney is exceedingly skeptical concerning our taking Philippine responsibilities. He argues

at length to show that we were neither bound by any considerations of honor or duty to buy them nor was it to our interest to buy them. However, he says "the thing is done. It remains to be considered what the effect of owning the Philippines is to have on the future of our foreign relations. Our diplomatic agencies must be carefully enlarged, strengthened, and improved, and we need a powerful navy, up to date in all points of construction, armament, general efficiency, and readiness for instant service; and we need a large addition to our regular standing army."

THE EXPANSION OF OUR DUTIES AND SYMPATHIES.

"Hereafter, as heretofore, our general policy must be and will be non-interference in the internal affairs of European states—hereafter, as heretofore, we shall claim paramountcy in things purely American—and hereafter, as heretofore, we shall antagonize any attempt by a European power to forcibly plant its flag on the American continents. It cannot be doubted, however, that our new departure not merely unties our hands, but fairly binds us to use them in a manner we have thus far not been accustomed to. We cannot assert ourselves as a power whose interests and sympathies are as wide as civilization without assuming obligations corresponding to the claim—obligations to be all the more scrupulously recognized and performed that they lack the sanction of physical force. The first duty of every nation, as already observed, is to itself—is the promotion and conservation of its own interests. Its position as an active member of the international family does not require it ever to lose sight of that principle. But just weight being given to that principle, and its abilities and resources and opportunities permitting, there is no reason why the United States should not act for the relief of suffering humanity and for the advancement of civilization wherever and whenever such action would be timely and effective. Should there, for example, be a recurrence of the Turkish massacres of Armenian Christians, not to stop them alone or in concert with others, could we do so without imperiling our own substantial interests, would be unworthy of us and inconsistent with our claims and aspirations as a great power. We certainly could no longer shelter ourselves behind the time-honored excuse that we are an American power exclusively, without concern with the affairs of the world at large."

Mr. Olney thinks that in consequence of this

new international position of our country a measure of popular interest and importance will attach to our foreign affairs unknown before; without any necessary decline of patriotism, domestic affairs will cease to be regarded as alone deserving the serious attention of Americans generally.

THE PROBLEMS OF THE TRANSVAAL WAR.

M. JEAN DE BLOCH, whose predictions concerning modern war have been so strikingly justified by events in South Africa, contributes to the *Revue des Revues* for February 1 an article on "The Transvaal War and Its Problems," which, while it shows plainly the folly of England's government in rushing into war, is nevertheless in essence a defense of the British officers and troops. The British army, says M. Bloch, have done badly in South Africa, but no other army would have done better. The difficulties which they are meeting in South Africa spring from the very nature of modern war, and though this should have deterred the government from entering upon such a struggle, no blame can be attached to the generals for not overcoming obstacles which the best military authorities on the continent have unanimously declared to be almost insuperable. In short, though the war was not "inevitable," England's reverses were; which is probably the worst accusation against England's government and the best defense of her soldiers which has yet been made.

A PLEA FOR INVESTIGATION.

M. Bloch declares that no success can be obtained until a thorough scientific investigation is made by the British military authorities into the conditions of the war in South Africa, and he says that if this investigation had been made the war would never have been entered on. He takes the War Office to task for its crass ignorance—or gross neglect—of the best military authorities of the continent, who for years past have been recapitulating without ceasing the enormous difficulties of an offensive war. The lesson of Plevna as to the advantages to be drawn from a scientific use of the spade ought to have been studied by the War Office, for it has been insisted upon by all military writers. The Prussian general Von Schlichtung declared that "in the condition of modern armaments the spade may render to tactics services so great that it may become a great arm in itself, and not one of minor importance. To assure a prolonged resistance against offensive operations intrenchments will often render more service than permanent fortifications."

ATTACK ALMOST IMPOSSIBLE.

Von Rohne, Von der Goltz, Ferron, Kuropatkin, Skugarevsky, all have insisted on the practical impossibility of attacking scientific intrenchments. The War Office cared nothing for this. They evidently expected that the Boers would imitate the Dervishes and rush on the British bayonets. But nobody else thought so. They recognized that the Boers, "relieved of baggage by their simplicity and endurance, used to the climate, and knowing every inch of the land on which the contest is taking place, alert, good marchers, with defensive positions prepared in advance, and knowing well that if they attack their English foes they would meet with strong resistance, imperturbable courage, and an iron discipline which they do not themselves possess, are compelled by necessity, as well as inclination, to restrict themselves to defense. The English War Office should, therefore, not have doubted for a moment that the Boers would avoid hurling themselves against the English troops in attack. On the contrary, it ought to have been foreseen that the Boers would force the British to attack them in positions sheltered from projectiles by the nature of the ground, compelling the dispersion of their slow-moving enemies who understand little of a sharpshooters' war."

TURNING MOVEMENTS DIFFICULT.

Yet with all the good military qualities of the Boers, M. Bloch thinks that German or Russian soldiers acting on the defensive would have caused us losses incomparably greater. Indeed, he has not any particular respect for the fighting qualities of the Boers, and thinks that their successes spring from the natural advantages of a defensive war of which they understand how to avail themselves. M. Bloch's article was written before the failure of the great Tugela turning movement, but he expressed in advance his disbelief in its efficacy:

"The English generals are criticised because they have failed to attain by means of maneuvers and turning operations successes such as were obtained by the Germans in the war of 1870. But for this purpose it would be necessary to have the superiority of forces which the Germans possessed, and their strength was four times greater than that of the French—a superiority which it is impossible for England to obtain; and it would also be necessary first to determine every time the enemy's position, which is ten times more difficult now than in 1870, in consequence of the employment of long-range rifles, the absence of smoke, and the nature of the country in South Africa. But, in addition

to this, every flanking movement must in the end lead to an attack, if it is impossible to force the enemy to come out of his fortifications to defend some vital point, the fall of which into the hands of the enemy would have a decisive effect on the war, as, for instance, in France, Paris, in Germany, Berlin, and so on. But such points are not to be found in the Transvaal. The capital, Pretoria, owing to the primitive character of the Transvaal Government, has no great importance. In addition to this, Pretoria is strongly fortified, and in order to reach it by means of turning movements it would be necessary to advance over hilly country, in which it is impossible to deviate from railroads and main roads, otherwise the advancing army would perish from hunger. Besides, this would require such a large army as England has not and could hardly have."

It was precisely this fact, that the turning movement on the Tugela in the end "led to an attack," which caused its failure.

NO OFFICERS—NO FOOD.

Suppose England should send out 100,000 more men. Then, says M. Bloch, she will meet two difficulties—she has not enough trained officers to lead them and she will not be able to supply them:

"It must not be forgotten that the further from the sea the English armies penetrate the more difficult will it become to provision them with vital necessities, and the interruption of communications which will result from the mobility of the Boers, their endurance, knowledge of the country, and ties with its local population will be a phenomenon of constant occurrence. In addition to this, a prolonged campaign, owing to the unavoidable deficiency of food and shelter, will probably develop disease among the English troops.

"The perfection of arms has produced this result, that a small body of troops may now defend itself for several days against an enemy two or three times as strong. This fact, which has been formally established at maneuvers in Germany, may serve as a rule to the judges of the struggle. The Boers will surround their opponent, they will be everywhere on his path, they will wear him out with continual skirmishing, in which their skill will render sanguinary his every step, and they will force him finally to attack them in positions which it is impossible to take without immense loss."

THE CAUSE OF BRITISH SURRENDERS.

M. Bloch gives an explanation of the extraordinary phenomenon of the surrender of large bodies of British troops after comparatively trifling

losses. It is not the proportion of losses already sustained, but the fear of future losses which compels soldiers to give way. Thus a battalion which loses 10 per cent. in a minute is more likely to raise the white flag than one which loses 50 per cent. in a twelve hours' battle. M. Bloch thinks that the high culture of our officers and the education of our men makes them much more liable to nervous panics than less cultured troops. But "before bringing accusations it would be wise to consider every separate occasion, and in the great majority of cases I am convinced that instead of condemning those who have surrendered, it would appear to military men worthier to cry 'honor and glory!' and to express gratitude for the moral courage which refuses to sacrifice innocent men in vain. Once it is impossible to obtain results, every man lost means simply murder, which is all the more shameful since such murder is not only unpunished, but glorified as heroism."

THE BOER TEXT-BOOK.

M. Bloch concludes his article by repeating his plea for an inquiry. He says:

"I have written this not for the purpose of advertisement, but only in order to prove how necessary such an inquiry is to England. I may say that the only government which has studied my work is that which is at the present moment opposing England. Immediately after the publication of the German translation of my work in the spring of last year a considerable number of copies was dispatched to the Transvaal, and afterward an abridged translation of the book was published in Dutch."

Since its publication in the *Revue des Revues* "The Transvaal War and Its Problems" has been translated into English and published as a pamphlet. It is regarded as the most notable and detailed foreign opinion which has yet been expressed on the subject of the war.

AN ITALIAN GENERAL ON THE WAR.

ONE of the clearest and most satisfactory statements of the progress of the South African War that have come under our notice is by General dal Verme, of the Italian army, in *Nuova Antologia* for January 16. General dal Verme's account of the war covers the three months following the expiration of President Krüger's ultimatum. It takes in, therefore, Lord Methuen's severe repulse at Magersfontein and General Buller's defeat at the fords of the Tugela near Colenso, but not General Buller's repulse at Spion Kop. As a recital of the military events of the first three months of hostilities the account

is admirable; but our readers have been informed of those events in the course of their progress, and we will not recapitulate them here. General dal Verme gives more, however, than a narrative of battles and defeats. He offers an explanation of British failure. "It will not be superfluous," he says, "to study how it has happened that solid British troops have not only failed to overcome an enemy inferior in numbers, but have been repeatedly beaten, and after three months of war have been reduced to the impossibility of making an advance."

In the opinion of General dal Verme the reverses of the British are attributable to five principal causes: (1) lack of mobility; (2) inadequate transportation; (3) errors of tactics; (4) errors of strategy; (5) political meddling.

THE BRITISH SOLDIER A POOR MARCHER.

"The English soldier," our critic says, "is not a marcher. He carries but little on his back and scorns to carry even that little. . . . A march of ten English miles—that is, of sixteen kilometers—is considered in the British army an average march for infantry, but in the continental armies the average is between twenty and twenty-five. Consider where a general would find himself with battalions that hardly make sixteen kilometers a day (four an hour) in the presence of the Boers, who in an hour make eight and in a day (and for many days in succession) easily make from thirty to forty." It is easy, then, for the Boers to block British movements, for they know every inch of the ground and are informed of any movement as soon as it begins.

LACK OF TRANSPORTATION.

The English soldier, besides being slow, has many wants. He enters the army expecting to live there better than at home, but he is unwilling to carry on his back more than a little of what he needs. Of course the requirements of the officers are on a far higher plane than those of their men. Hence a very cumbersome transportation service is necessary, especially if there are bodies of cavalry, and in such a country as South Africa, for the horses used by the British are not habituated to climate and pasture, and fodder has to be carried wherever they go. And yet, notwithstanding these excessive demands, the British transportation service has not been organized even at home. In South Africa it is wholly inadequate. The result is that the British have to keep close to the lines of railroad, and the Boers foresee and anticipate with sufficient preparation all their advances. The necessity of adequate transportation almost anybody can see;

the difficulties in the way of attaining it are known only to experts. General dal Verme regards these difficulties as very serious, but not so great as those which confronted the Italians in the Ethiopian uplands.

INFERIOR TACTICS AND STRATEGY.

As an instance of tactical error, General dal Verme refers to the British practice of attacking an intrenched enemy in columns or in deep masses. Of course when attacks are made in dense formations many more of the assailants are put out of the battle by the enemy's projectiles than when the attacking line is thin and open. But as a matter of fact have the British commanders in the South African War been usually guilty of such imprudence? Certainly they have not in some cases, and in some others where an attack in column was made (as in General Buller's attempted crossing of the Tugela near Colenso) is it not a fair presumption that the situation made any other formation impossible?

The capital strategic error of the campaign, General dal Verme thinks, has been the dispersion of the British troops through so vast a theater of war. Reserving his opinion as to whether Ladysmith ought to have been abandoned before it was invested by the Boers, he admits that the defense and projected relief of Ladysmith complicated greatly the strategic problem. But even so, he maintains that the dispersion of troops has been excessive.

POLITICAL INTERFERENCE.

Next to inadequate transportation, political meddling, our critic thinks, is mostly responsible for the disasters of the war. The bad strategy with which the campaign has been conducted so far he attributes not to the incompetence of British generals, but to an interference in their plans dictated by political considerations. And this interference, he believes, has not only modified plans of campaign, but even precipitated battles. The subordinate commanders are not free from its influence. Even such an affair as General Gatacre's movement on the Boers near Stormberg seems to have been the result of political pressure. Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener, General dal Verme thinks, have such a hold on the confidence of the British public that they will be free to act as good military judgment requires. If they seem slow confidence in them will not be shaken. Their prestige is so great that Britons of all kinds will say: "They know best." And here it is that the critic sees possibilities favorable to the British arms. A new start must be made—a start from the beginning.

If England will improve her transportation service so that her armies can move without dependence on the railroads, if, too, she will give her trusted commanders all the soldiers they ask for and cease meddling with their plans, then she can recover her prestige. Napoleon, referring to the war in Spain, said: "The English infantry is the best in the world; fortunately there isn't much of it." With such soldiers and such commanders as England believes the new chiefs to be, General dal Verme thinks that England has good grounds (if transportation is made adequate) for expecting a satisfactory termination of the war.

YOUTH VERSUS AGE IN GENERALSHIP.

WRITING in the *National Review*, "An Englishman" maintains that England is relying too much upon old men in the Transvaal war. He says:

"Our own empire was built up mainly by young men. Chatham was not fifty when he was called upon to rescue England from utter collapse and to convert continued defeat into victory every morning. Pitt was a boy when he was summoned to the administration of affairs on the eve of the greatest struggle in which our country has ever engaged. Wolfe was only forty-two when he laid down his noble life on the Heights of Abraham. Nelson was thirty-nine when the victory of the Nile stamped him as 'our greatest sailor since the world began.' Wellington was thirty-four when he commanded at Assaye, and only forty when he opened the Peninsular War as commander-in-chief of a great army. John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, was fifty-two when he took the field for his first campaign as generalissimo in Flanders. Cromwell, the greatest soldier and organizer our country has ever produced, was forty-six when he won Naseby. The Duke of Cumberland was not twenty-five when he became commander-in-chief; some months later he went to an army demoralized by defeat and in a few weeks lifted it to confidence and victory. But, then, the Duke of Cumberland was a prince who had soldiered and studied, instead of giving his time to sport.

IN WAR.

"The generals who made their names on the side of the North during the Civil War were all young men. Grant was forty when he commanded at Shiloh; Sheridan was thirty-three when he commanded the cavalry of the Army of the Potomac; Sherman, one of the best, if not the best man that the war produced on either

side, was only forty-four when he started forth upon his immortal Atlanta campaign. On the side of the South, too, the generals were young by modern standards. 'Joe' Johnston was only fifty-two at the outbreak of the war; Lee was fifty-four; 'Jeb' Stuart was twenty-eight; 'Stonewall' Jackson thirty-seven. If we turn to our own field army to-day we shall find that not one of the officers in high command in South Africa is under forty. These are the ages:

"General Buller, sixty-one; General Gatacre, fifty-seven; General Lord Methuen, fifty-five; General Clery, sixty-two; General French, forty-eight; General Kelly-Kenny, sixty; General Warren, sixty; General White, sixty-five; Lord Roberts, sixty-eight; Lord Kitchener, fifty.

"Excepting General French, who has already distinguished himself by winning the one complete victory—on a small scale, it is true—of the war, Lord Kitchener is the youngest. It is because he is the youngest, and because his comparative youth will have the benefit of the experience of the venerable and beloved Lord Roberts, that the nation watches him with such hope. For this is a war in which we may have to change our tactics—certainly we shall have to change our strategy—and radical changes demand young men.

IN GOVERNMENT.

"And now let us turn to the men who control the fortunes of the empire to-day. Their names and their ages are as follows: Lord Salisbury,* seventy; Mr. Chamberlain, sixty-four; Mr. A. Balfour,* fifty-two; Mr. Goschen,* sixty-nine; Sir M. Hicks-Beach,* sixty-three; Duke of Devonshire,* sixty-seven; Lord Lansdowne,* fifty-five; Lord Wolseley, sixty-seven; Lord W. Kerr, sixty. (Those marked with an asterisk are members of the Defense Committee.)

"There is no one under fifty in this 'inner circle.' The two youngest men in the number are, rightly or wrongly, especially identified with the want of foresight and preparation which has brought the empire to its present pass. Mr. Balfour's speeches show him to have been blind and indifferent to the danger; the plight of our army in South Africa, the half measures, the manifest hesitation, and the tardiness of the dispatch of reinforcements equally condemn Lord Lansdowne."

It should be noted, however, that the Franco-Prussian War was won by von Moltke when he was seventy, that President Krüger is seventy-six, and that Joubert and Kronje are the seniors of Buller and Methuen.



From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).

SUCH A SURPRISE.

MR. BALFOUR: "Fancy, Ridley! They've actually got horses!"

SIR M. W. RIDLEY: "And look, Arthur, they've got rifles, too! What a shame to deceive us!"

THE BRITISH INTELLIGENCE DEPARTMENT.

IN *Cornhill* for February Maj. Arthur Griffiths describes the organization and working of the "Intelligence Division" of the British War Office, the present director of which is Gen. Sir John Ardagh, "the best equipped for the control of the department of any who have exercised it." The business of the Intelligence Department is intrusted to six subdivisions, each of which deals with a particular subject. The subjects comprise—

"1. The collection and collation of all information with regard to the military defense of the empire, and the examination of all schemes of defense, in the strategical and scientific aspect.

"2. The accumulation of all facts that can be obtained as to the military strength and resources of foreign powers. This covers accurate information on the military geography of the several countries concerned, the physical features and the artificial treatment of their frontiers, and generally the value of their defensive lines. It embraces the fullest details that can be obtained of the armed strength of the three arms, not merely numbers of *personnel* and quantity of material, but their organization and the system of mobilization, or in other words of raising the peace establishment to a war footing. The same sort of information is collected and recorded from all British colonies and possessions. It is the

especial duty of the department under this head to provide at short notice the comprehensive reports already mentioned upon any of these points.

"3. Map-making in a military sense. The correcting of all existing maps by the light of latest knowledge, noting the changes made by the rectification of frontiers, the pressure of war, the improvements in the methods of moving troops by the creation of new railroad lines or other communications.

"4. The translation of foreign documents received by public departments, for which purpose the staff of the office is always strengthened by the employment of officers who are skilled linguists."

CABLES IN WAR-TIME.

TO the first January number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* M. Depelley contributes an interesting paper upon telegraphic cables in time of war. Among the various effects which the present war has produced in Europe, perhaps not the least curious is that it has made France suddenly wake up to the fact that England possesses practically a monopoly of the great submarine cables of the world. The fact was, of course, perfectly well known to well-informed people before the war broke out, but apparently it needed the clear revelation of England's mili-

tary censorship to penetrate the almost Chinese indifference of French public opinion. M. Depelley rather pathetically takes us back to the first words exchanged between Europe and America by the new trans-Atlantic cable in 1858; they were words of peace, which demanded the neutralization of telegraphic lines. The then President of the United States, in his congratulatory dispatch to the Queen, asked that "all civilized nations should declare, spontaneously and as the result of a general agreement, that the electric telegraph shall be forever neutral; that the messages to be intrusted to it shall be regarded as sacred even in the middle of hostilities."

ENGLAND AN OVERGROWN SPIDER.

After more than forty years this desire remains nothing more than a pious opinion, and M. Depelley draws an impressive picture of the steady determination with which England, sitting like a great overgrown spider in London, has enveloped the whole world in a network of submarine lines, so that nothing can happen anywhere without being immediately known in London. With the assistance of an excellent map he exhibits very clearly the extent and intricacy of this British telegraphic network, and he is particularly annoyed to think that the French Government pays not far short of \$500,000 a year to English cable companies by way of subventions. These English companies are, he explains, under the most stringent rules imposed by the British Government, by which they are prevented from employing foreigners; their wires must never be under the control of a foreign government; the British Government's dispatches must always have precedence when required; and in case of war the British Government reserves power to seize all the stations on English territory and to use the cable as it pleases. M. Depelley goes on to draw a terrible picture of the weakness and indifference of Spain to this great cable question. When the Spanish-American War broke out she had no independent and trustworthy telegraphic communication between Madrid and Havana; she was actually obliged to communicate with Cuba over American cables; and the moral of this is that France at this moment is not in a much better position. It must be admitted that on the map the French telegraph lines are few, and would be of no great strategic importance in time of war, though no doubt the French Government could depend upon having the Russian telegraph services placed at its disposal. M. Depelley is naturally much struck by the measure of success which has been obtained by the proposal for a Pacific cable uniting Canada and Australia. It is a project, he sees clearly, which owes its pros-

pects of success entirely to the patronage not only of the imperial government, but also of the colonial cabinets, and it demonstrates to his mind the sleepless activity of England in keeping her telegraphic communications absolutely ahead of the rest of the world.

WARNINGS TO FRANCE.

But England is not the only country which M. Depelley holds up as a striking example to his own country. The United States is actively pursuing a scheme for a cable to Manila which should touch at the Sandwich Islands. Germany also, in spite of her unfavorable geographical position, which only gives her a seaboard on the North Sea, is seeking to obtain her own independent cables, and she has actually picked up a scheme which was considered for a time in France and ultimately abandoned. It is known as the scheme of the Azores, and consists in the laying of cables from Germany to the archipelago of the Azores and thence to New York; and this cable will be laid in eighteen months or two years by a German company possessing the support of the government and the most influential patronage. It would, however, be unjust to ignore the tentative efforts which have been made to bring France into a better position in regard to these matters. The existing French cables are open to the grave objection that they depend almost entirely on the coöperation of certain English and American cable companies—a coöperation which, though willingly rendered in time of peace, would be liable to be withdrawn in the event of war. Within the last three years an attempt has certainly been made to remedy this state of affairs. A new line has been laid between Brest and New York, and from New York it has been continued to Haiti. The construction of this cable presented extraordinary difficulties, and its success certainly reflects credit on French enterprise. As regards Africa and the far East, French lines only go as far as Algiers, Oran, and Tunis—a fact which sufficiently shows how completely France is "out of it," from a cable point of view, in the great waters of the Indian and Pacific Oceans. But there are signs that France is determined to furnish herself with a complete telegraphic system which would group her colonial possessions together and connect them with the mother country by independent cables. The whole tone of M. Depelley's article, though not violent, is anti-English, and he looks forward to a time when Paris and not London shall be the telegraphic capital of the world. To attain this end he is apparently quite willing that France should coöperate with any country in the world except England.

BEFORE THE JAMESON RAID.

THE *Quarterly Review* publishes an article under the title "Ten Years Before the Raid," which is chiefly devoted to an examination of the long struggle which took place between President Krüger and the British Government to prevent the extension of the frontier of the republic. The article is interesting on account of the information which it gives as to the way in which the contemplated *trek* to the north in 1890 was checked by Sir Henry Loch and Dr. Jameson. The *trek* then contemplated seems to have been a much more serious enterprise than was generally believed. The *Quarterly* reviewer quotes from the public proclamation of the organizers of the *trek*, from which it appears that the great *trek* was to be convoyed by 5,000 of the best fighting men of the Transvaal. It was to be carefully organized. Doctors and ministers were to march with the column, and as soon as the country was settled schools were to be opened and newspapers published. The burghers were to proclaim a "republic of the north" and develop a genuine Afrikaner nationality. One of their leaders proclaimed that "the Lord of heaven who governs everything can alone prevent the *trek* being made, and no man." The Boers, however, overlooked the possibility that the Almighty might employ a man as his agent. Sir Henry Loch sent up troops to Bechuanaland to resist any attempt to cross the frontier. Colonel Gould-Adams and Dr. Jameson, with the Chartered Company's police and a detachment of regulars, headed off the only two parties of Boers who attempted to make the *trek*.

A SEAPORT GRANTED THE BOERS.

The article then deals at length with the Swaziland negotiations and summarizes, very conveniently for reference, the conditions under which Sir Hercules Robinson was willing to allow the Transvaal access to the sea. President Krüger has always tried to make his way to the sea, and has always been headed off by the British Government. Either through Swaziland or through Tongaland he hoped to go and look at the sea, to use his own phrase. When Sir Hercules Robinson was high commissioner a proposal was made which, if it had been accepted, would have enabled the Boers to realize their aspirations:

"Sir Francis de Winton was sent on a special commission to report on the affairs of Swaziland, and he suggested that it would be possible to grant the republic the right to acquire, in full sovereignty, a piece of land ten miles in radius on the shores of Kosi Bay, where they might

make a port, and at the same time to acquire by treaty from the chiefs the right to build a railroad which would connect this port with the other territory of the republic. This proposal may fairly be regarded as a very generous attempt to enable the republic to attain full commercial freedom. The only conditions to be attached to it were that the republic should admit South African produce free of duty and join the South African Customs Union; that the republic should not, without the approval of her majesty's government, part with the harbor of Kosi Bay or enter into any treaty regarding it; and that if any dispute arose with a foreign power regarding the harbor, the diplomatic negotiations should be carried on by her majesty's government."

These conditions were incorporated in a convention by Sir Henry Loch. He gave the republic the right to hold a piece of land down to the coast in full sovereignty, so that the actual territory of the republic would touch the sea and bring them into connection both with Kosi Bay and the Pongola River.

The convention was signed and ratified, with the condition that it should lapse if in three years the republic had not taken advantage of its provision. The three years passed and nothing was done. The convention was then prolonged for another year, but the port was never made, the railroad was never built, and the convention was allowed to lapse.

"A CRIME AND A BLUNDER."

Down to 1895 the reviewer maintains that, despite the enmity and dissatisfaction of the Boers, the policy of firm and steady pressure had achieved very good results. The quiet persistence of the imperial government had not been in vain. If the hope of realization was frustrated, it was due in the first place to the Hollanders, who taught the Boers to look for help to foreign powers, and in the next place to the raid. Upon the latter the reviewer says:

"We know that in regard to that disastrous event the English Government was guiltless; but who can ever expect a single Boer to believe this? The connection of the company and the crown was too close; the unfortunate transference of Bechuanaland to the company, which alone made the raid possible, was too recent. The authority of the crown, which the Boers were perhaps beginning to regard as a symbol of law, was now made apparently the accomplice of lawlessness. We do not wish now to enter on a discussion about the raid; no one denies that it was both a crime and a blunder. One thing, however, we must say, and that is that, looking

back on the history of the Chartered Company, we have no right to be surprised, either at the lawlessness of the attempt or at its rashness."

THE BRITISH-BOER NEGOTIATIONS OF AUGUST, 1899.

THE Hon. Auberon Herbert, under the title "A Tragedy of Errors," writes in the February *Contemporary* on the course of British diplomacy in South Africa in the summer of last year. He asks: "Was there ever such a pathetic story, such a tragedy of errors, such a chronicle of difficulties and antagonisms needlessly created, such failure in the methods of dealing with them?" Mr. Herbert thinks that the fatal blunder which wrecked everything was Sir Alfred Milner's forwarding two dispatches of Mr. Conyngham Greene's as to his conversations with Mr. Smuts, as if they were equally authentic. This, however, was by no means the only mistake. Mr. Herbert says:

"At this critical moment, when literally the great issues of peace and war were trembling in the balance, he presses, through Mr. Greene, for an immediate answer to the British dispatch. It is almost incredible, but he seems to have pressed for a reply by Saturday to a dispatch that, as I gather, was only presented on the Wednesday. And for what intelligible reason? What did a few days matter at this supreme hour of the crisis? At the same moment it is evident that he has an attack of the war fidgets and becomes nervously afraid lest our government should be too conciliatory and pacific. In the temper of 'the lost man' he goads Mr. Chamberlain into action, telegraphing that 'British South Africa is prepared for extreme measures'; that he fears 'a strong reaction against the policy' of the government; that he preaches 'confidence and patience, but,' etc. One can only stand half in pity and half in horror before such a complete loss of balance, such a prostration of his own reason and self-control in the presence of the passions rising round him. But so it was. The brain seems to have been shaken; the conscience to have been silenced; while the hand that should have saved us from the precipice was the one to help to send us to our fate.

"But this is the last criticism that I shall pass on Sir A. Milner. I have no pleasure in heaping reproaches on him. He has one merit. He has not been as the politicians. He has acted plainly and straightforwardly and in the open daylight. He has worn no mask, used no smooth and untruthful phrases, been guilty of no affectations. He has been on the side of war as frankly as any old Tory squire or any boy of seventeen in our

public schools. It is not a good or lovely thing to have stirred up strife and to have roughly stamped upon the first beginnings of reconciliation, but it is better than to talk lies as most of us do in politics. For one action at a later stage Sir A. Milner deserves our thanks. He kept back a very curt and ill tempered dispatch of Mr. Chamberlain to President Steyn, who was making a last effort for conciliation. I am much afraid, from the peace point of view, it was nearly the one solitary act of grace on his part, but, such as it was, it shall certainly be imputed to him by those of us who are lovers of peace for righteousness."

MILNER'S MISTAKE.

Summing up this terrible story of pride and suspicion, Mr. Herbert says:

"Mr. Greene sends two telegrams, one formal, one informal, concerning the conditions of peace at which he has arrived. Sir A. Milner—though himself in full possession of the facts—fails to inform Mr. Chamberlain of the different value of the two telegrams, and Mr. Chamberlain makes demands outside the formal agreement. These demands give the negotiations a wrong twist. We on our side ask for more than was in the charter of agreement and are refused; and on their side the Transvaal Government perversely give something less. Most unfortunately Mr. Greene's hands are tied; he is not allowed to be officially aware of the reply of the Transvaal Government or to correct mistakes made. Thus the misunderstanding widens. We receive the note of the Transvaal concessions and reply to it, meaning to accept, but unfortunately we do it in a clumsy manner, and so fail to reassure the Transvaal Government, that had grown suspicious (owing to new conditions being raised outside Mr. Greene's agreement) about our intentions to fulfill our side of the settlement. In a huff the Transvaal Government withdraws the concessions offered, but puts right one of the two of the defects in its concessions and desires to reopen negotiations. A great opportunity for large and wise statesmanship comes to Mr. Chamberlain, but he disastrously rejects it. He gives way to bad temper and rudeness, and once more we enter upon what Mr. Greene has well called 'an interminable interchange of recriminating correspondence,' which could have but one end."

"LET US BOTH CRY HALT!"

Leaving the past, he then comes to consider what ought to be done now:

"I answer, let both nations make confession of their huge folly. We have both made under bad guidance complete fools of ourselves. We

have both of us—we the British in the higher degree—been stupid, proud, masterful, quarrelsome like children, suspicious, petty and perverse in our methods of bargaining, and filled with a dangerous contempt for each other. We have both believed in the final resort to force, and we have both believed—in our conceit—that the path of easy victory lay open before us. We have both been sharply awoken from our careless dreams by the sufferings which have fallen alike to the share of both of us. We have both passed through the fires of our own kindling; we have both reaped what we have sown; and now let us both take to heart and profit by the lesson we have learned. Let us put from us the vainglorious talking in which we have both of us indulged. Let us put from us the passion and delirium of a fatal moment, pull ourselves together, and act with the sober sense and self-discipline that is, as we believe, the heritage of both races. Enough blood, and far more than enough, has stained hill and veldt. Let us both cry halt to our soldiers. Let the most sane-minded and level-headed man that we have in the country be sent out. Let an armistice be arranged on terms of perfect equality. Whatever may have happened before these words are printed, whether we have gained a military success or not, neither side should claim victory, neither side should be asked to confess defeat or to undergo any humiliation. Each side should bear its own losses, whatever they may be. We should treat all this hideous drama of the last three months as a dream gone by and forgotten, as a thing that has now become simply non-existent. We should wipe it clean off the slate, leaving it to be the mere property of the historian. We should go straight back to the position of August, and take up the negotiations exactly at the point where they left the hands of Mr. Smuts and Mr. Conyngham Greene, and go steadily and patiently through the work as if it had never been interrupted."

ENGLAND'S JUSTIFICATION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

IN concluding a paper in the *North American Review* for February on the record of the Dutch in South Africa, their relations with the native tribes, and their deep-seated antipathy to the English, Mr. Henry Cust says:

"It seems already amazing, and will seem yet more wonderful hereafter, that, in a small community, a large majority of Anglo-Saxon blood could bear for so long a period so tyrannous a government, so corrupt an administration, so intolerable a condition of life. To some, perhaps, it will seem still stranger that the proud empire,

professing to be paramount, could endure a humiliation so protracted and profound.

"In the case of the present war the side of sentiment may be omitted wholly, save on the narrowest personal footing. The Boers, it is true, wish to remain independent; the English wish to readjust the social and political conditions in life in South Africa. It cannot be denied that, by both the original Sand River conventions of 1852 and 1854, England *granted* autonomy to the two Boer states. It cannot be denied that by the acceptance of that grant, *as a grant*, the Boers admitted the paramouncy or suzerainty (the word matters little) of England. It cannot be denied, in the case of the Transvaal, that by the further grant of 1881, modified by the concessions of 1884, which were *appealed for* by the Boer Government, the principle of British paramouncy was again admitted, and that an absolute equality of political and other rights was solemnly promised, not only to the British, but to all immigrating foreigners.

ENGLAND STANDS FOR EQUALITY OF RIGHTS.

"On the other hand, by ignoring utterly and ostentatiously the engagements on which their national existence has depended; by refusing the least of political or even municipal rights to that majority of the inhabitants who paid nine-tenths of the income of the country; by using vast sums of the money so obtained to enlist the enemies of England and to equip themselves with an arsenal of arms against the power which created and maintained them; and, lastly, by declaring war against her—by these things the Boers have made South Africa what it is to-day. A thousand voices tell us that it is the land-greed, the gold-greed, the empire-greed of England that have made the war. England, they scream, is the conquering tyrant of free nations. Yet it is a French-born government, loyal to England, that sends troops to the front from Canada, and it is a Dutch government, loyal to England, that is in power at the Cape to-day. Formulas grow meaningless by repetition, but what truth they carry is unchanged. When England claims 'equal rights for all white men south of the Zambesi,' she says, what generations in practice have proved true, that in Cape Colony, and Natal, and Rhodesia the Boer stands on exactly the same footing with the English-born; and more, that in no English colony of the world has the proudest, richest Englishman one lonely political or commercial advantage over the humblest and poorest foreign immigrant.

"It is to extend this equal freedom that we are fighting now, and by the world this fight will never be regretted."

RUSSIAN AND GERMAN OPINIONS OF ENGLAND'S COURSE.

THE *Vestnik Evrope* for December points out the great contradictions between the Hague conference, with its solemn declarations in the spirit of peace and humanity, and the slaughter in South Africa undertaken by the government of the most cultured and civilized power in the world. While England was defending at The Hague the ideas of peace (declaring at the same time against alleviating the horrors of war), Mr. Chamberlain was gradually preparing to strike a final blow at the Transvaal according to the programme of Mr. Cecil Rhodes.

The *Vestnik Evrope* goes on to explain the aim of Sir Alfred Milner's original demands, which were made in order to get a majority in the Volksraad, to elect as president an Englishman, and to legally transfer the government of the Transvaal to the English. In vain did the Transvaal protest that nowhere in the world have foreigners any share in the legislature and the government without first being naturalized, and that miners and others without fixed abode and means of subsistence could certainly not aspire to the franchise.

The diplomatic campaign of Mr. Chamberlain produced an extremely painful impression; its harsh and provocative tone, its insincere tricks and sophisms gradually revealing a perspective of open violence. Then, to the astonishment of every one, the weak and insignificant Boer republic not only was not frightened by the British threats, but with great courage went to meet the danger, declaring war before England had all her preparations made. The ultimatum of October 9 seemed an act of folly, but the consequences have quite justified that heroic step.

Humiliating defeat was the result of boasting. To divide the skin of a bear before he is killed is always impracticable; but to declare to the enemy one's determination to destroy him, when not only he is not yet conquered, but, on the contrary, he himself is victorious, was only the result of increasing his resistance and artificially giving to the war a fiercer character, thus closing the way against any compromise.

Germany.

A German lady writing in the *National Review* on the "Present Feeling in Germany Toward England" tells pretty frankly what England's German cousins think of her.

"The German opinion of England is not, at present, flattering. 'Is it possible,' I asked myself when the war broke out and I heard the conduct of the English discussed wherever I went—'is it possible that they should be so bad?'

For I found a certain difficulty in believing that of all European nations England is the most corrupt, treacherous, and base; that she cares for nothing but her own advantage; that she is hypocritical past belief; that she is brutal beyond the average brutality of barbarians; that she is covetous and dishonorable in all her dealings; and that he is a fool who puts his trust in her word.

"Many people in Germany are of opinion that England is in decadence, that she is too rich and is paying the usual penalty for a surfeit of the good things of life. She has, they say, grown fat, sleepy, secure, and careless, big in words and small in deeds, and that her tendency even now to call actions that have only just escaped being defeats splendid victories is neither the spirit in which great victories are won nor the spirit that inspired her in past years, when the envy with which other nations regarded her was mixed with a very genuine admiration.

"When the war against the Boers began there was a very general feeling of indignation in Germany against England, and it will need the entire skill of English statesmen to efface the extraordinarily unfavorable impression that England's foreign policy has since made. This will be the more difficult owing to the prevailing conviction—whether just or not it is hardly possible as yet to tell—that England's policy has taken its present direction chiefly on account of the influence of certain financial circles and mine owners, and that Transvaal gold has exercised the same fatal fascination on English statesmen that the Rheingold did on the heroes of the German legend. This conviction has seemed justified by the discovery that England has plunged totally unprepared into the present war; but in her eagerness to secure the golden eggs she has placed the life of the goose that lays them in jeopardy, although it is evident that her financial and intellectual preponderance in the Transvaal is so great that a few years of waiting would have obtained for her all she wanted without the necessity of firing a shot."

THE POLITICAL HORIZON.

MR. HENRY LOOMIS NELSON begins in the March *Atlantic Monthly* a series of essays under the title "The Political Horizon," the initial article being occupied with the development of our socialism. Mr. Nelson takes the ground that "what some people call Bryanism and what others call socialism is naturally the result of the party strifes, mingled with personal greed, of the last thirty years." Mr. Nelson briefly indicates the leading events in the political history of this period of thirty years. The

various factions of discontent did not begin to draw together until after 1886. First came the United Labor party and then the Populist party, which was stronger than any of its predecessors. Finally, in the Fifty-third Congress, the angry Democrats from the South and West reached the climax of indignation. They saw the corrupting work of the sugar trust in the sugar schedule, they had seen Wall Street in one form striking silver from the coinage of the country, and now in another form they fancied they saw it once more successful in preventing a reduction of tariff taxes.

THE MASSING OF THE DISCONTENTED.

"Now more than ever 'Wall Street,' capital, property, were massed in a single body, at which the disappointed and the discontented aimed their blow. The consolidation of the factions had been going on, and both the old parties were losing. Comparing 1892 with 1888, the regular Democratic vote increased only 18,635, the Republican vote fell off 264,108, while the Greenback, Prohibition, and Labor vote increased from 400,820 to 1,326,325. The socialistic party was growing with great rapidity. Its argument was that it was quite as much the duty of the Government to enrich the farmers as to enrich the manufacturers, and arrayed with those who insisted that any grant of public money to a private enterprise was a form of socialism especially obnoxious because it includes favoritism were those who insisted on extending socialism to all the interests of the community."

THE NEW DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

By 1896 these had gained possession of the Democratic party and had united with it most of the irregular parties. The old Democratic leaders went out of politics.

"The result of the thirty years' war is that men like Cleveland, Carlisle, Olney, Fairchild, Wilson, and hundreds of thousands of other Democrats are out of public life and have no party. But there still remain within the party men like Gorman, Murphy, Smith, and the Tammany leaders, who were the chief instruments of the party's betrayal in 1894. The results of the rage and rebellion are 6,500,000 votes for Mr. Bryan, and a large body of voters who demand free coinage of silver, government loans on farm produce, government currency to the amount of \$50 *per capita*, government ownership of railroads, telegraphs, telephones, gas works, and electric plants, and finally the abolition of the executive and the Senate, and the substitution of an executive board chosen by the House of Representatives from its own members. We have

won a great victory against what we call the 'forces of disorder,' but we have done very little to repair the mistakes of thirty years. The vote for Mr. Bryan was not large enough to elect its candidate in 1896, but it exceeded by nearly 1,000,000 the vote of any previous Democratic candidate and by nearly 1,100,000 that of any Republican candidate except the vote cast for Mr. McKinley. It is large enough to threaten and injure the prosperity of the country in any time of depression, yet those who taught this great host of voters that the Treasury is a reservoir for the increase of private gain, and therefore for the relief of private need, make no concession, unless a few feeble reciprocity bills, which also consult the interests of favored classes, can be called concessions, while they even threaten an increase of taxation for the profit of the shipping interests."

A CHOICE OF EVILS FOR THE FUTURE.

"Meantime the welfare of the country depends upon a body of voters who are merely choosing between what they regard as evils. When will the weight of evil shift? In twenty years the federal expenditures have increased nearly fourfold, from \$167,000,000 to \$605,000,000, from \$5.46 to \$7.97 *per capita*. When will this burden accentuate too sharply a pinching financial depression brought on perhaps by the inability of the banks to respond to the demand upon them for currency? It may be that the extravagant socialism led by Bryan will never carry a Presidential election. But so long as it exists in anywhere near its present importance, it can be counted on to increase distrust, to prolong panics, and to make their misery more acute."

RADICALISM—EAST AND WEST.

IN the *Arena* for February Mr. Albert Watkins institutes a comparison between the recent legislation of such States as Illinois and New York and that of the supposedly "radical" commonwealths of Kansas and Nebraska, for the purpose of showing that the enactments of recent legislatures in the former States have been "far more radical, socialistic, and paternalistic—in character and tendency, in kind and in quantity"—than those of the contemporary legislatures in the Missouri plains region, although the latter were controlled during the greater part of the past ten years by the Populist party.

THE RIGHTS OF CAPITAL.

Mr. Watkins makes his allegation especially emphatic regarding what is known as anti-corporation and anti-capitalistic legislation, asserting

that the present laws of Kansas and Nebraska, which include the enactments of successive "radical" legislatures, are not as far-reaching as similar laws to be found on the statute-books of Eastern States.

"The laws of Kansas and Nebraska relating to rates of interest and the collection of debts are conservative and safe, and in this regard have not been substantially changed since their original passage in the days of the old conservative political parties. This fact reflects the sound business sense and self-control, in troublous and trying times, of the people of these Western States. Reason taught them that as they must depend for some time to come upon loans of Eastern capital for the development of their interests, the passage of laws unjust to or considered unsafe by the holders of this capital would be equivalent to killing the goose that laid their golden egg; and business interests were never lost sight of by the controlling elements in these States.

"The laws passed by the Legislature of New York in 1897 are a long stride along the road of radicalism and paternalism, both in regard to property rights and to a minute surveillance over the acts and affairs of the people—far more radical than those of the revolutionary States of Kansas and Nebraska enacted in the same year. The same allegation may be made as to the State of Illinois, in comparison with the States of Kansas and Nebraska; though Illinois legislation has been less radical and paternal than that of New York. The recently enacted inheritance-tax laws of New York and Illinois are a far greater stride along the road to State socialism than any laws that have been passed in the Western States named. In short, more laws interfering with and checking free industrial competition, or in derogation of the interests, if not of the rights, of capital and capitalists, or for the special benefit of distinct classes, or paternally seeking minutely to direct and control the affairs of individuals (such measures as are commonly known as paternalistic or socialistic), were passed at a single session of the New York Legislature of 1897 than have been passed by the legislatures of all the States of the Western plains since so-called radical politics has been dominant in them."

WHY THE WEST IS NATURALLY CONSERVATIVE.

The West, as Mr. Watkins shows, has had not a little provocation to political radicalism. While the Nebraska farmer has received 9 cents a bushel for his corn, it has taken 12 cents a bushel to carry it to the Chicago market, notwithstanding all the marvelous improvements in

freight transportation. The wonder is that the people of the West have remained, on the whole, conservative in their legislation. The reason for this conservatism Mr. Watkins finds in the fact that the Western people are so largely owners and tillers of the soil. From the census returns he makes the following deductions:

"Of the farming population of New York only 491,283 own the farms they till, while 816,732 are mere tenants or renters. In Nebraska 124,529 farmers own their farms and 82,291 are tenants. In Illinois 386,374 farmers own their farms and 391,641 are tenants. In Kansas 181,328 own their farms and 116,030 are tenants. The relative real interest that farmers in the States named who own their farms have in them also strongly favors the Western States. The amount of mortgage debt to a taxable acre in New York is \$7.74; in Nebraska, \$3.52; in Illinois, \$4.77; in Kansas, \$3.97. The real-estate mortgage debt *per capita* is for New York \$268; Nebraska, \$126; Illinois, \$100; Kansas, \$170. The percentage of real-estate mortgages in force January 1, 1890, of the true value of all taxed real estate, was in New York 10.62; in Nebraska, 20.03; in Illinois, 12.36; in Kansas, 26.83. The amount of incumbrance on the value of farms occupied by owners is in New York 43.63 per cent.; in Nebraska, 32.39 per cent.; in Illinois, 34.63 per cent.; in Kansas, 35.99 per cent. Of all the farmers, the percentage who own the farms they till is in Nebraska 60.21 and in New York 37.56. The percentage of families of New York who own their homes is 29.28; of Nebraska, 43.91; of Illinois, 43.10; of Kansas, 50.15. While these figures of the census of 1890 are not now absolutely correct, they make a fair relative showing of the facts in question."

ANTIDOTES FOR THE LYNCHING EVIL.

"A SOUTHERN Lawyer" concludes a sensible and temperate discussion of lynch law in the *Sewanee Review* for January with the following suggestions toward reform:

"1. There should be created a more efficient system of education.

"2. Preventive agencies should be substituted for repressive ones. A rural police is especially desirable.

"3. Judges to be appointed for life and given a proper compensation.

"4. The abolition of capital punishment in all cases save those where the prisoner is accused of an assault upon a woman.

"5. The recasting of criminal procedure so as to make it less technical. At the same time juris-

diction ought to be conferred upon county courts to try privately persons accused of assaults upon females. Judges of such courts should be authorized to empanel a jury immediately, and if found guilty the accused should be executed at once and privately. There should be no appeals in such cases.

"6. Sheriffs who permit a prisoner to be rescued by a mob for the purpose of lynching him should be removed from office at once, and any person who publicly advocates lynching should be ineligible to any position under the State or federal Government.

"7. There should be organized in every State where assaults, lynchings, murders, and other felonies are common an association composed of representative and intelligent citizens, whose duty should be the collection and publication of the circumstances of such crimes. By giving the widest circulation possible to such occurrences a healthier public opinion could be quickly created."

THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING AT THE PARIS FAIR.

IN the *Magazine of Art* for February Mr. Charles de Kay describes the pavilion erected by the United States Government at the Paris exhibition.

This structure is one of a line of government buildings for the various nations taking part in the fair. These buildings "rise in a line fronting the Seine over against the Champs Élysées, thus forming, as it were, a front on the river bank, behind which the great mass of the buildings belonging to the fair have been placed so as to cover the Champs de Mars and completely surround the Invalides." The problem before the architects of the United States building was to utilize their narrow frontage to the best advantage.

A DISTINCTIVE STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE.

As to the principal features decided on by the architects, this writer says:

"It is to be observed from the picture that the problem was to indicate in some way that this particular building belonged to the United States, and not to Italy or Turkey next door. This was not accomplished by using as an architectural theme the log hut of the native wilds. Certain other factors guided the selection. In the first place, the architects considered the fact that the invention of the passenger lift has profoundly modified the architecture of the great cities of the Union, and it was a natural suggestion that this building should be lofty. Moreover, the World's Fair of 1893 at Chicago had set a fashion for the

classical which in itself would not be out of place in a city like Paris, still more or less dominated by buildings belonging to the Napoleonic era. The result of these various forces is a building which remotely suggests on the one hand the Capitol at Washington and on the other hand the Invalides in Paris, at least so far as its dome is concerned.

"Opinions may differ as to the wisdom of selecting a more or less classical style of architecture, but to the writer it seems that in choosing this style certain distinct objects of no little importance have been gained.

"The building will detach itself with very great distinctness from its neighbors. It is to be made of staff and liberally embellished. Placed among buildings of very different styles of architecture, because in general each nation will be represented by a building of a very typical sort, it will not only vary greatly from almost all the other buildings in the same diplomatic row, but present a very strong contrast to the style of architecture adopted by the French for their fair at the close of the century."

THE WATER FRONT.

One of the most interesting points about the American building is its position on the river:

"Another distinctive feature of this building, whereby it relieves itself advantageously from the fronts of the other buildings on the same quay, is the portico, which strides across the quay itself to the edge of the terrace overlooking the Seine, affording at the same time protection from the elements to those who arrive by way of the river and cross the street to the building itself. Here, in front of the portico, is a landing-place conventionally fashioned after a galley. This strikes one as perhaps the most questionable feature in the entire building. Certainly it does not belong to a building of this type; still, it is perhaps allowable as a whim. To this landing-place certain American steam launches will ply on the Seine and make connections with an American railroad, which, like the boats themselves, are exhibits of American manufactures—a railroad that terminates in the Bois de Vincennes at a higher point on the river and on the other side of Paris.

"We see, therefore, that the whole matter has been maturely considered. American visitors to Paris can start from their hotel, take an American railroad to the Bois de Vincennes, examine the section of the great fair which is placed in that locality, take an American launch down the Seine, and land in the heart of the fair at the building erected by their Government for its own purposes."

EMBELLISHMENTS.

In general arrangement the building seems not unlike the buildings erected by the various State governments at the World's Fair of 1893. The ground floor will be entirely given up to American visitors without regard to official rank. On the upper floors are rooms for the American commissioner and his staff and for commissioners from the different States of the Union.

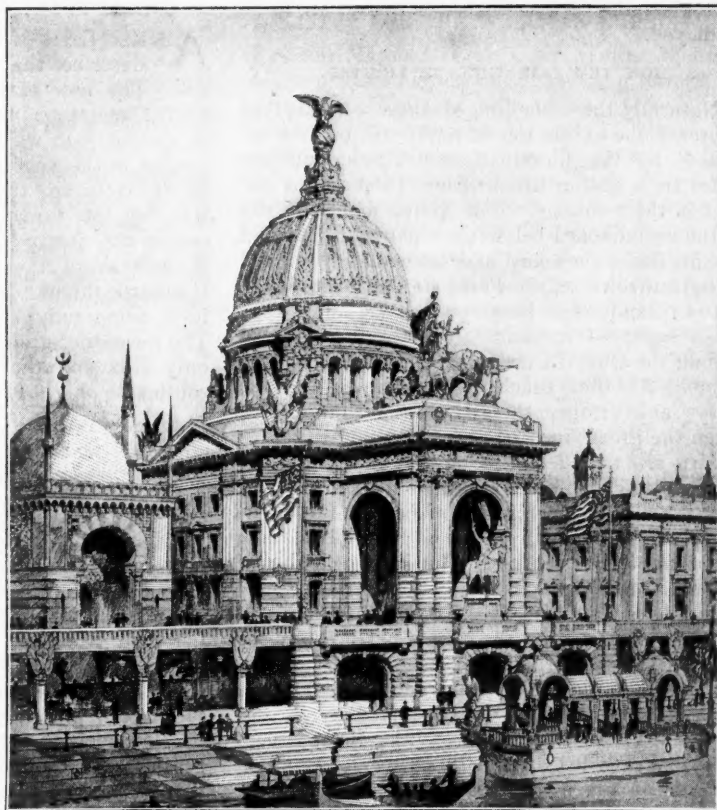
The equestrian statue occupying the space between the double columns of the portico is a monument of Washington by Mr. Daniel C. French. On the top of the portico the figure of Victory in the chariot and the winged female figures with trumpets leading the horses are the work of Frederick MacMonnies. Other sculptures on the building were executed by Messrs. Flanagan and McNeil.

The design of the building is the joint work of Mr. Charles A. Coolidge, of Chicago, and M. Morin Goussiaux, of Paris. The decoration of the interior has been committed to Mr. F. D. Millet.

ELECTRICITY AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

THE great distinguishing feature of the world's fair in 1900 will be the achievements of electricity. It is the intention of the management that the exhibition shall be in this field a record and a prophecy.

Whatever was done by the power of steam in the exhibition of 1889 will be done in that of 1900 by electricity. The electricity will be made by steam, but it will be the electricity, not the steam, that will drive the thousands of busy whirling machines in the great show. The seat of this power is the electrical palace at the lower end of the Champ de Mars. It closes the long avenue between the exhibition buildings. The "palace," in fact, is a workshop concealed by an immense ornamental screen of glass and iron. Its façade, to one looking down the avenue between the temples of industry and science, seems to be an enormous fan of lace and ivory spread



THE UNITED STATES PAVILION AT THE PARIS EXHIBITION.

out against the sky. But within this decorative veil ornament gives way to the practical and useful. The aggregate force of the engines that drive the dynamos is 40,000 horse power. M. Michel Corday, who writes in the *Revue de Paris* on the function of electricity in the Paris show, pauses for a moment to tabulate the steam power of the five Paris exhibitions. The progressive increment is certainly very striking:

	Horse Power.
1855.....	350
1867.....	525
1878.....	2,500
1889.....	6,500
1900.....	40,000

The furnaces and boilers that supply the immense steam power of the present exhibition are in a covered court just outside the electrical palace. The steam, conducted thence to the ground floor of the palace, sets in motion the motors and dynamos. In front of the palace, concealed by the Château d'Eau, is the room where the electrical currents are controlled and directed. Here are the keyboards and switches for turning the

currents to the various places where they are to be employed.

HOW THE FAIR WILL BE LIGHTED.

Naturally the attention of those who visit or approach the exhibition at night will be first arrested by the illuminations. These will not differ from similar illuminations in America except in their volume. The young man who sits at the switchboard below the Château d'Eau will put his finger on a key, and immediately a flood of light thrown on the Porte de la Concorde by 3,100 incandescent lamps and 36 arc lamps calls up a burst of applause from the crowds that throng the Quai d'Orsay and the bridges of the Seine. Another touch of his finger, and the quays and bridges themselves are illuminated. Then the great lines of the palace of the Trocadéro are traced in fire on the sky; now the gardens and exhibition buildings gleam in moonlight—artificial moonlight; and at last the foaming plumes spouted from the Château d'Eau take the tints of the rainbow. But a description of this sort of display is really less striking now than a bare statement of the number of lamps to be used in producing the effects. Here are the numbers for the principal places of interest:

Porte Monumentale, 36 arc and 3,100 incandescent lamps; Jardin des Champs Élysées, 174 arc lamps; Pont Alexandre, 500 incandescent lamps; Palais de l'Électricité, 12 arc and 5,000 incandescent lamps; Château d'Eau, 1,100 incandescent lamps; Salle de Fêtes, 4,500 incandescent lamps; Esplanade des Invalides, 60 arc lamps; Palais des Invalides, 2,136 incandescent lamps.

Only a rhapsodist like M. Corday can awaken an adequate notion of the wonders that may be accomplished when a steam force of 40,000 horse power is converted into electricity. M. Corday is especially impressed by the anticipation of seeing mechanical productions and the processes of making them brought close together so as to be in one view, as it were—an attainment that would not be practicable for most productions but for the wonderful adaptability of electricity to all mechanical appliances.

ELECTRICITY AT CHICAGO IN 1893.

While M. Corday's retrospect is interesting, it wholly disregards the World's Fair of 1893 at Chicago, where the electrical display was far in advance of anything previously attempted. The Paris exhibition of 1889 was made insignificant by comparison. Thus the plant for incandescent lights at Chicago was made up of 12 dynamos, each with a capacity of 10,000 lamps; the arc lights numbered 6,000, each with an illuminating power of 2,000 candles.

THE LONGEST TUNNEL IN THE WORLD.

A XEL LARSEN in the January *Cassier's* describes the making of the Simplon tunnel. The new tunnel is, he says, to measure 19,731 meters (about 12 miles) in length when completed. It will thus, he adds, become the longest in the world. The engineer, Mr. Brandt, of St. Gotthard tunnel fame, contracted to do the Simplon tunnel at a lower cost than the earlier one just mentioned and in half the time. It will avoid the steep gradients of the St. Gotthard tunnel, its highest point above sea-level being only 705 meters, as against 1,155. The ascending gradient on the north side will be only 0.02 and the descending gradient on the south side only 0.07.

THE PARALLEL BURROWS.

But this deeper level, which was in places 2,140 meters below the top of the mountain, was supposed to involve a temperature of about 105° F.; for under Gotthard the heat rose to 88°, and men and beasts were overpowered. Mr. Brandt solved the problem in this way:

"The duplex system, which was to be used here for the first time, was, indeed, the only means by which the Simplon could ever be successfully tunneled, for the principal object of the second tunnel is to carry fresh air into the main passage during construction. The second tunnel serves as a huge air pipe, which, as will be seen presently, draws a permanent and ample supply of fresh air into the workings. The second tunnel, which is to run parallel with the main tunnel at a distance of about 55 feet, is to be connected with the latter by winzes or cross-cuts 650 feet apart."

By an air shaft to the surface of the mountain on the first tunnel, by lighting a fire at its base, and by closing access of air to the first tunnel except through the cross-cut, a current of air is drawn through the second tunnel, the cross-cut, and the first tunnel. This process is repeated at several stages in the progress of the excavation.

WEIRD EXPLOSIONS.

The boring machines are worked by hydraulic pressure generated by three steam engines which are to be later replaced by turbines. The water is brought from the Rhone by pipes 63 inches in diameter and nearly 2 miles in length.

A series of ten holes, each 6 feet deep and 4 inches across, is bored in from three to five hours and charged with about 10 kilograms of blasting gelatine. Here is a strange fact about the explosion:

"No sound of the explosions is heard 1,000 yards away from the working point, and yet the

resulting air pressure at that distance is such as to cause pain in the ears."

A GIGANTIC SQUIRT.

The arsenal of modern industry has in this undertaking been enriched by an extraordinary engine:

"The somewhat tedious work of clearing away the *débris* will shortly be done in the Simplon tunnel with a minimum loss of time. To accomplish this the indefatigable Mr. Brandt has added another formidable weapon to his armory of demolition—viz., a gigantic air gun, 300 feet long and with a caliber of 6½ inches. This gun is charged with compressed air at a pressure of 100 atmospheres and fires a projectile of 900 gallons of water. Once the cannon has been placed in position the powder fuses will be abandoned and the shot-firing will be done by electricity. In this manner it will be possible to fire the explosive in the bore-holes and the gun simultaneously. Thus at the same moment that the solid rock is splintered into a heap of fragments by the blasting charges, a huge volume of water is hurled against the *débris*, which is instantaneously washed away from the working face and left against the wall some 50 yards further down the tunnel."

The simple expedient of cleaning a window by dashing a pail of water against it is thus developed into a cannonade of flood against the shattered alp.

APPLIED GEOLOGY.

The water after being so used is allowed to run free down the tunnel, which thus becomes the bed of a subterranean stream, sometimes knee-deep. A gentler application of the same fluid is in train:

"It is intended to cool the air in the tunnel by means of fresh mountain water, which will be conveyed into the tunnel through pipes and discharged in the working places in a fine spray. In this manner it is expected to keep the temperature below 75° F."

The entire work is to cost \$14,000,000 and is to be completed by May 13, 1904. Up to September 30 last 5,970 feet had been tunneled on the north side and 3,683 feet on the south side; total, 9,653 feet. This sketch forms an interesting chapter in what may be termed applied geology. Lightning, wind, and water—the prime agents of geologic change in the Alps—are here used by man for his own purposes.

Since the publication of the article in *Cassier's* news has come of the untimely death of Mr. Brandt while in charge of the work. His methods, it is said, will be adhered to, and it is believed that the tunnel will be completed within contract time.

DISASTER FOR THE WELLMAN EXPEDITION.

IN the March *McClure's* Mr. Walter Wellman continues his account of sledging toward the pole. Mr. Wellman tells of an extraordinary disaster which overtook his party on March 22, 1899. While sledging over the ice at this time the party had succeeded in covering 140 of the 700 miles which lay between its winter quarters and the pole itself. On March 22, while the party was in camp owing to a storm, the ice suddenly began to rumble sullenly and then crack in various places. The cracks immediately closed, so that one of the dogs, for instance, had his head cut cleanly off. The ice was shaking and breaking and the sea was spouting through the openings. This disaster, which came nearly overwhelming the party, lost it one-third of their dogs, all the dog food and part of the party's food, and, worst of all, the basket of instruments.

IN AN "ICE-QUAKE."

"For a few moments, oddly enough, we did not fully realize our danger. To none of us was an ice pressure a new thing, and familiarity had doubtless bred in us, if not contempt for the ice king, certainly a somewhat superfluous confidence in ourselves. But when, a few moments later, the very pieces of ice on which we stood reared up and assumed angles of from 30° to 45°; when our entire camp started revolving as if it were in a maelstrom; when we saw our tent, sleeping-bags, and cooking-kit threatened with destruction by a rushing mass of sludge and water, we knew that whatever was to be done must be done right quickly. There was no panic. There was not the slightest sign that any one of us was even excited. We cut the harnesses of such dogs as we could get at, that they might save themselves. In the very nick of time three of us sprang out upon the floe which held the tent, tilted though it was with one edge down in the boiling sea and the other up in the air; and after a sharp struggle we succeeded in rescuing the precious sleeping-bags, the cooking-outfit, and the tent itself."

What was most curious of all was that the ill-fated party had pitched its camp directly on the one place which was dangerous. This was about half a mile from an enormous iceberg, as large as a New York office building. The storm had driven the ice field down upon the great berg, and the camp had been right on the line of the cut where the field of ice struck the berg.

THE CAUSE OF THE DISASTER.

"It was all plain enough. The mountainous berg absorbed the ice sheet, and into the channel thus formed—here, as elsewhere, nature will

have no vacuum—the pressure of billions of tons, coming from rear, right, left, had jammed, rolled, revolved, uplifted, down-thrust, crunched, crushed, powdered the fragments of floes in a death struggle for mere place to exist. All along that coast, as far as we could see this bright morning, the one spot—the one little rood out of all these millions of acres—where our camp could have been pitched only to be destroyed was the very spot where it had been pitched. All other spots for miles and miles were just as they had been. Start an ant crawling across a newspaper. Take a pair of shears, shut your eyes, make one random clip, and cut the insect in two. We were the ant creeping across the surface of this great ice sheet, and that is what chance did for us—the one out of millions that saved at least one human life.”

Mr. Wellman says that no one now proposes to reach the north pole by any other means than sledging; that the old idea of the open polar sea and navigation to the top of the earth has been abandoned. So the problem of modern pole seekers is simplified to a plan of going as far north as possible with a ship, establishing headquarters upon the land, and making a dash for the pole and back again with dog sledges.

SLEDGING TO THE POLE.

“The season of the year during which one can travel over the ice sheet is limited. The winter months are too dark and the summer months—oddly enough—are too warm. The best season is from about March 1 to the end of May—say 100 days in all. Before March the sun is far below the horizon and the gloom too dense. After May the snow is too soft and sticky and the ice too much broken up. It is true that some traveling might be done in October and early November, after the snow has hardened again, and this suggests the plan of using the 100 days of spring for reaching the pole and the autumn for returning to headquarters. But it must be remembered that after once leaving the land and taking to the sea ice no game can be had; everything the travelers eat and the fuel for melting ice and cooking food must be carried with them. The more they carry the slower they must travel. Two pounds a day is the minimum ration per man of the most approved modern ‘condensed’ food. This means 200 pounds per man for a journey of 100 days, to say nothing of weight of sledges, instruments, tent, fuel, sleeping-bags, and packing. With the help of dogs this much may be carried, and the period of absence from land may be extended to 125 or even 140 days, though at first the loads will be very heavy. If, however, a party sets out upon a journey of nine

months’ duration, nearly 600 pounds per man would represent the minimum load simply of food for men alone and excluding all other things, among them the sustenance of the dogs—clearly an impossible burden.

LITERALLY “A DASH TO THE POLE.”

“So there is nothing for it but a quick journey out from the land and back again. It makes no difference whether the base used be north Greenland, Franz Josef Land, or a ship that has drifted into the inner polar sea—it is necessarily ‘a dash for the pole,’ and nothing but a dash. It is, practically, a campaign of 100 or 115 days, beginning in the midst of the arctic winter and ending at the commencing of summer. The man who can get his base established just right, who can so organize his party and so arrange his weights and his motive power as to be able to cover an average of ten miles a day, and who can manage to avert all serious accidents, has the pole within his grasp.

A MILE AN HOUR.

“Ten miles a day, a mile an hour, seems very little. But try it once if you want to know how difficult it is. Our party was as well organized as any party could be. We had the best of everything and not too much of it. Simplicity is the first essential of a successful sledge trip. Yet work as hard as we could we made an average of only six miles a day, about the same as Nansen and Johansen had made. Of course our loads were heaviest these days, for we were carrying four months’ supplies. Each of the five of us had a sledge and a team of dogs. Much of the road was very rough. The previous fall, before the ice had frozen solidly, northeast winds, driving down against the land, had smashed the floes into a forest of hummocks and ridges. Between these elevations there were pockets of deep snow. Winding in and out, up and down, over and through these obstacles, we made our painful way by dint of much lifting, shoving, pulling, and an incessant shouting at the poor dogs.”

Mr. Wellman says that the arctic traveler’s greatest hardship was the indirect effect of the cold. “The camping hour arrives. You have been working hard all day, pulling and tugging, in a temperature ranging from 25° to 45° below zero, and perhaps with a nice cool wind blowing from the north. Outside you are a mass of frost, and inside your skin is wet with perspiration. Be careful in pitching the tent that you do not leave your mittens off more than a few seconds, or you will not only freeze your fingers, but find the mittens frozen so hard you can’t get them on again.”

ACROSS SOUTH AMERICA IN A GUNBOAT.

IN *Ainslee's Magazine* for February Mr. Edward H. Coleman describes the cruise of 2,300 miles up the Amazon made by the United States gunboat *Wilmington* about one year ago. It seems not a little remarkable that the Washington authorities so readily gave permission to Commander Todd to undertake such an expedition.

"The fact that the trip had never before been taken by a man-of-war, the fact that it meant the threading of a stream of doubtful survey, the fact that the *Wilmington* was constructed for ocean sailing and had never been intended for this species of bobtail paddle-boat work, did not enter into the question."

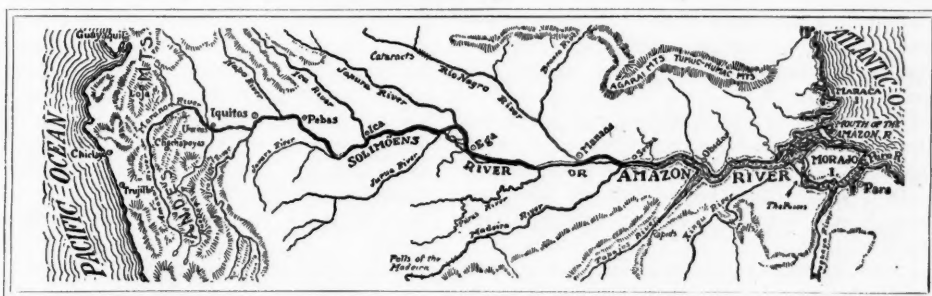
"The *Wilmington* is a steel gunboat of 1,392 tons displacement. Her speed is thirteen knots, horse power 1,600, and the cost exceeded \$280,000. She is a peculiar-looking craft. She has no counterpart in appearance in the American navy, nor, in fact, in any navy. And she is the only man-of-war that ever ascended the Amazon

settlements, but they are generally temporary, being erected for the convenience of the rubber gatherers.

"The dreary solitude and monotony of the interminable stretch of low banks and the knowledge that back of these shores lay hundreds of miles of unexplored, almost impenetrable forest, swampy, stagnant, fever-breeding, and pestilent, gave the journey up the great river a weird, mysterious tone."

About 500 miles from Para, at the junction of the Tapajos River with the Amazon, the town of Santarem was reached. The original settlement here was made by a colony of Americans in 1866, though all traces of the Yankee settlers have been removed.

On March 24, five days from Para, the *Wilmington* reached the end of the main trunk of the Amazon. Here the Rio Negro joins with the Solimoes to form the Amazon. Ten miles up the Rio Negro lies Manaus, the capital of the great state of Amazonas.



MAP SHOWING THE "WILMINGTON'S" COURSE. (IQUITOS WAS THE WESTERNMOST POINT REACHED.)

beyond Manaus. Not even a Brazilian gunboat can claim that feat."

The cabled consent of the Navy Department reached the *Wilmington* at Para, and from that port the ship had to steam 280 miles, through the Para River and a network of narrow streams known as the Passes, to reach the main channel of the Amazon.

"At the junction with the Passes the river seems more of an elongated lake or arm of the sea. It was fully eight miles in width and presented a muddy surface, which appeared scarcely to move, although in places the presence of floating islands and drifting logs indicated an actual and rather swift current. March and April being the end of the rainy season, the gunboat found the great river at its highest.

"From the Passes to Manaus, which was to be Commander Todd's first stop, the distance is 700 miles. In all this length there are not a half dozen towns containing more than 500 to 700 inhabitants. At intervals can be found smaller

"This coming upon a populous and well-built city after passing through such a wild and desolate region was a revelation to those of the gunboat's crew who had not previously read descriptions of the place. To find a city with over 30,000 inhabitants, electric lights, a million-dollar theater, fine residences, and palatial public buildings in the heart of the South American continent was indeed cause for wonderment.

"During the *Wilmington's* stay of almost two weeks the officers and crew had ample opportunity to learn much of the town, and also to experience a hospitality that was both cordial and sincere. It was not the first visit paid by an American man-of-war. The *Enterprise*, under the command of Rear Admiral (then Commander) Thomas O. Selfridge, ascended to Manaus in 1878."

THE VOYAGE INTO PERU.

"On April 5 the taut little cruiser recommenced her journey, and gaining the Amazon once more turned her bow toward the distant

Andes. She was now threading her fourth river since the departure from the city of Para—the Para, Amazon, Rio Negro, and the Solimoes.

"It was a moment of exultation for the American crew when their ship passed into the Solimoes, for it marked a record in navigation and exploration. For the first time in the history of the world a man-of-war had entered the river. And that man-of-war floated the Stars and Stripes!"

After six days' steaming the *Wilmington* reached the junction of the Rio Marañon and the Rio Javari, which unite to form the Solimoes. The Rio Javari serves as the boundary line between Brazil and Peru for about 500 miles. Near its junction with the Marañon is a small town, Tabatinga, at which is kept a force of Brazilian soldiers to guard the frontier.

The *Wilmington* fired a national salute as she approached this post and sent a boat ashore to exchange the usual courtesies. What followed is thus related by Mr. Coleman:

"The officer in charge of the gunboat's cutter noticed with some surprise that the crowd of spectators previously observed on shore had entirely disappeared.

"There were several Brazilian soldiers at the landing, and one of these ventured to approach the naval officer. The Brazilian seemed greatly disturbed, and from the actions of his companions it was evident they felt unaccountably alarmed.

"Senhor," exclaimed the former hastily, 'we are without news, and we beg that you will enlighten us at once.'

"News of what?" was the American's puzzled reply. 'I am sure I—'

"Then there is no war?" broke in the soldier.

"Not in this part of the world."

"But you fired?"

"The *Wilmington's* representative stifled his desire to laugh, and gravely explained the gunboat's presence and her well-meant courtesy in expending so much powder.

"I am delighted," finally confessed the Brazilian; 'but, senhor,' he added, 'you have depopulated the village. All the natives have fled to the jungle, and I doubt if we can induce them to return until you are gone. Senhor, those guns—they echo yet!'"

On April 13, just twenty-five days after leaving Para, the *Wilmington* reached Iquitos, Peru, within 500 miles of the Pacific. This proved to be the end of the journey, as a shortage of coal made further progress impracticable. Iquitos was found to be an ordinary South American town with a population of about 10,000, consisting of Peruvians of Spanish descent, a laboring

class made up of half-breed Spanish and Incas, and some pure-blooded Indians of various tribes.

After a stay of five days at Iquitos the return trip to Para was begun. The ship, aided by the current, made the 2,300 miles in ten days, arriving at Para on April 28, 1899. In the course of the expedition a collection of animals and birds was secured for the National Park at Washington.

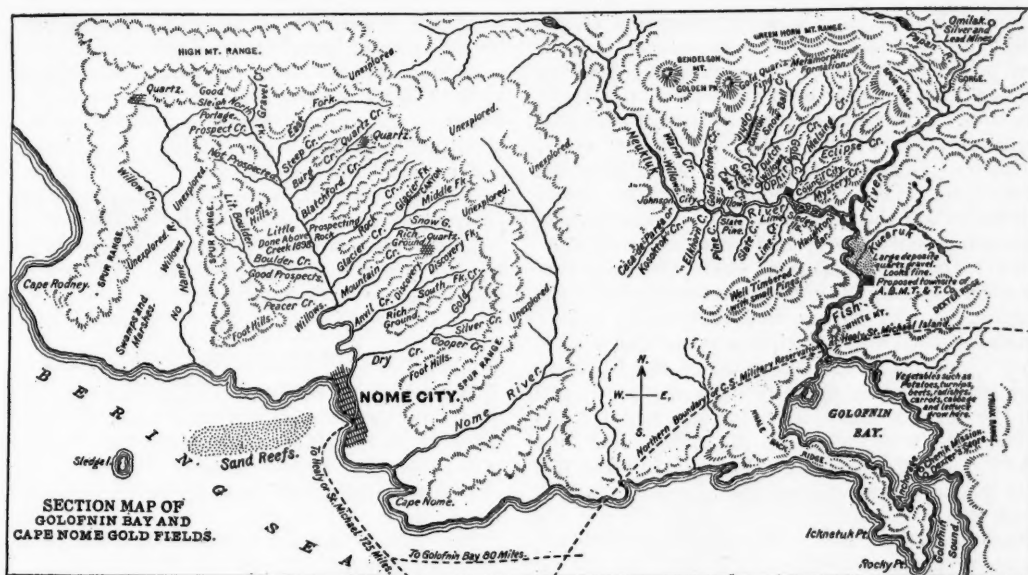
THE CAPE NOME GOLD DISTRICT.

FOR nearly a year past the attention of gold-seekers has been largely diverted from the Dawson City region to Cape Nome. In the January number of the *National Geographic Magazine* Mr. F. C. Schrader, of the United States Geological Survey, who visited Cape Nome in October last, gives a detailed description of the gold diggings there.

The Cape Nome district is situated on the northwest coast of Alaska, on the northeast arm of Bering Sea, at the entrance of Norton Sound. It is the southern promontory of a large peninsula, extending westward toward Siberia between Kotzebue and Norton Sounds, and largely separates Bering Sea from the Arctic Ocean. Westward this peninsula terminates at the one hundred and sixty-eighth meridian in Cape Prince of Wales, the most westward extension of the American continent, which is here separated from Asia by Bering Strait, about 60 miles in width.

The promontory on which the Nome district is situated has long been known on nearly all Alaskan maps by the name of Cape Nome. The district lies about 100 miles northwest of St. Michael and just outside of the Fort St. Michael military reservation. By ocean steamer route it is nearly 2,700 miles northwest of Seattle and about 750 miles from Dutch Harbor, Unalaska. The Cape Nome region as known at present extends from Cape Nome, the apex of the promontory, some 30 miles or more northward along the coast and about 20 miles inland to the north. In the middle of this shore line, at the mouth of the Snake River, is situated the city of Nome.

Mr. Schrader states that from Cape Nome for 30 miles or more westward to near Synrock the shore line is comparatively straight and smooth, but lying back of the shore line, between it and the base of the mountains, is the well-known tundra, or rolling, marshy plain. This consists of a strip of treeless, moss-covered marine gravels, forming a coastal shelf, which along the beach is about 30 feet above sea-level. From here it slopes gently upward until at the base of the mountains, some four or five miles from the



beach, it attains an elevation of 150 or 200 feet. During the summer it is usually wet, soft, and boggy, and is dotted here and there by a few ponds, and is traversed by the Snake, Nome, and Cripple Rivers and smaller streams which carry out the drainage from the mountains.

The geology of the region is thus described:

"The mountains thus far examined are composed of mica-schist and limestone, alternating in layers and beds with each other. They are thin or medium bedded rocks, and strike and trend northeastward and southwestward and dip southeastward at an angle of about 45°. The limestone is bluish-gray and comparatively fine-grained and more or less well metamorphosed, often becoming a crystalline marble. The mica-schist is sometimes slaty, but it also shows considerable metamorphic action and is garnetiferous. Locally the rocks are sometimes folded and traversed by quartz veins and veinlets, of both quartz and calcite, with also some iron and copper pyrites. Pyrites are also disseminated sporadically in the schists. The quartz veins and veinlets traversing the rocks are supposed to be the source of the gold. Far back in the mountains granite is said to occur, but may be represented merely by granitoid dikes, some pebbles of which occur in the beach gravels.

"The tundra is composed of apparently marine gravels, derived from the rocks in the mountains, and is almost exclusively mica-schist and limestone. Toward the mountains the gravels are often coarse, carrying boulders of considerable size, but along the beach they have been largely

reduced to fine gravel and sand by wave action. It is in this reduced material that the beach gold occurs."

A party of Swedes found gold on the creeks and in the gulches of the Nome district in September, 1898. In the gulches along the edge of the mountains coarse gold is found, the largest nuggets amounting to about \$350 each. Here the gold occurs on the "bed rock" under the creek gravels, which are six or eight feet in thickness.

TAKING GOLD FROM THE BEACH.

Not until July, 1899, was beach gold discovered at Cape Nome. For the most part the gold lies under two or three feet of gravel and sand, on a bottom layer of clay or argillaceous sand, called "bed rock" by the miners. Thin layers of ruby sand interstratified along with the gravel, near the so-called "bed rock," are also often found to contain gold. Having been reduced by wave action along with the gravel and sand, this beach gold is as fine as bird-shot. Some of it is even finer.

Mr. Schrader states that beach diggings were operated last summer and fall from Cape Nome to near Synrock. Coarse gold is being mined in Anvil, Dexter, Glacier, and Osborne Creeks, and along Penny and Cripple Rivers. The production of the region for the season of 1899 has been estimated at \$2,000,000, of which one-half came from the beach.

Mr. Schrader gives the following description of the miners' methods:

"In the gulches the work is carried on by stripping, sluicing, and to some extent by rocking, while on the beach the method of extracting the gold has thus far been almost exclusively by rocking. Here the water used for rocking is generally that of the ocean. In a few cases, however, the sea-water has been raised by steam power and sluices constructed along the beach. In the rocker the gold is caught on blankets and to some extent on copper plates coated with mercury. In many instances, where the supply of copper plate could not equal the demand, the bottom of the rocker was covered by United States silver coin, principally one-dollar pieces, and these coated with the mercury which caught the gold. During the latter part of summer and in the fall it is estimated that an average of 2,000 men were working along the beach, and that they took out an average of about \$20 per day per man. In many cases the amount taken out was much greater. The tundra between the beach and the base of the mountains has also been prospected to some extent and has not infrequently yielded from 10 cents to 30 cents per pan. Capital, however, will doubtless be required to handle the tundra with profit. Also the benches above referred to in the lower region of the mountains have been found to be auriferous and have largely been staked."

THE CITY OF NOME.

Between the early summer and the late autumn of 1899 a city of over 5,000 inhabitants was built up on a previously barren beach. People came from Dawson and other points on the Yukon, from the southeastern districts of Alaska, and from the Pacific coast of the United States.

"There are probably about 3,000 people wintering at Nome to-day, and judging from the present indications it is not unlikely that next summer the population will amount to about 25,000 or 30,000. Living during the past months has been very high—board and lodging \$6 per day and with room \$10 per day. The price of an ordinary meal was from \$2 to \$3, while wages ranged from \$12 to \$15 per day. Wood gathered from the driftwood along the beach cost \$40 to \$50 a cord; coal \$125 per ton; lumber \$125 per thousand feet; and other necessities almost in proportion.

"The population, though considerably mixed, is preëminently American and contains a good business element and law-abiding people. The government is a self-organized municipal government, giving good order throughout. A police force is on duty, and there is also located here a detachment of United States soldiers under Lieutenant Creigie, who did much in the earlier stages

of Nome toward the preservation of order and the securing of individual rights."

Cape Nome is not a seaport. The nearest harbors for deep-sea or ocean vessels are Port Clarence, 60 miles northwest, and Golofuin Bay, about the same distance northeast. It is thought not unlikely that one or both of these harbors will be connected with the Nome district by rail. In front of Nome the sea is so shallow that the larger vessels cannot approach the shore. Their cargoes are discharged by means of boats and lighters—a precarious method.

IS A TRADE REACTION IMPENDING?

MR. WHARTON BARKER, the candidate of the "Middle-of-the-Road" Populists for President, writing in his paper, the *Philadelphia American*, warns his readers of a reaction in trade conditions which he believes to be almost upon us.

Mr. Barker notes the recent increase in the New York bank reserves, which indicates that the money current is setting from the country toward the metropolis, and bases on this phenomenon a prediction of a speedy fall in the price-level.

Contrary to the opinion expressed by many observers of recent business conditions, Mr. Barker holds that buoyancy has already gone from the commodity markets, although he admits that there are exceptions to this statement. He says:

"Buyers and sellers alike are generally looking for a reaction in prices in the near future rather than a further advance. And in this state of mind sellers grow increasingly anxious to sell, enter into contracts for future delivery of goods for present prices, while the anxiety of buyers to enter into such contracts and so insure themselves against loss from a further rise in prices departs, a disposition to keep clear of such contracts and put off purchases taking the place of such anxiety. And among a certain class of producers, obliged by the nature of their business to take orders for future delivery and who can only safeguard themselves against loss by contracting, at the time of taking such orders, for the materials they will have need of in filling them, this anxiety has been acute. But now it has largely gone, and such producers are rather disposed to speculate on a fall in price for the materials they will have need of in filling orders, a fall that they anticipate."

With the fall in interest rates in New York has come the export of gold to England. In Mr. Barker's view it is by no means a matter of congratulation on our part that we have this gold to

spare. Its export at this time, as Mr. Barker sees it, means simply the drawing away from our industrial centers of money that should be kept at those centers, that trade activity be never at a standstill.

THE GOLD STANDARD AND BANK CURRENCY.

This brings us to what Mr. Barker regards as the real root of all our currency troubles—the attempt to maintain a fluctuating money standard. It is conceded that stability of prices—i.e., stability in value of money—can alone make trade activity permanent. Such stability, Mr. Barker contends, can never be secured as long as we hold all our money redeemable in gold; for gold itself fluctuates. Mr. Barker would have the volume of money regulated by the movement of prices. Whenever prices show a tendency to drop he would increase the issue of money, decreasing the issue when the opposing tendency begins to show itself. At present the banks regulate the issue of credits which serve as money. Mr. Barker argues that this system of bank currency also forbids stability. So long as we rely on bank issues, he says, we shall have succeeding cycles of trade activity and stagnation.

“For with the congestion of money in the financial centers that follows upon industrial depression we will have the banks expanding their credits, rearing a speculative fabric, fostering a speculative craze, a stock-exchange boom on which securities of various enterprises, industrial and other, may be floated. And then when industrial revival comes and money is drawn away from the financial centers, the banks that reared the credit fabric upon which the stock-exchange boom rested will of necessity be constrained to call in loans, pull down that very credit fabric, force liquidation on the stock exchanges, cause the quotations for securities to sink and interest rates to rise until the banks in the industrial centers that drew the money away from the financial centers will be tempted to send it back, curtailing their advances to producers in order to do so. And so a Wall Street pinch will be passed along to the industrial centers; so will collapse in Wall Street be followed by trade depression. And then will interest rates fall in New York, but money will still continue to flow there, congestion will finally force down rates to merely nominal figures, and then conditions will be ripe for the inaugurating of another speculative boom, another cycle of inflation and depression, during which the inside cliques can reap much at the expense of the multitude.”

In concluding his article Mr. Barker alludes to the fact that while England's war in South Africa is causing the accumulation of money in

London, it has at the same time cut off, temporarily, one-third of the world's supply of gold, just as the inauguration of the gold standard in India is creating a new demand for the yellow metal, which must needs grow dearer.

THE AUTHOR OF “CYRANO.”

IN the March *McClure's* Mr. Cleveland Moffett publishes a study of Edmond Rostand's personality and methods of writing, based chiefly on an interview with the author of “Cyrano,” the man who at twenty-seven woke up on December 29, 1897, to find himself famous. Rostand has



Reduced from a drawing by Thevenot reproduced in *McClure's Magazine*.

EDMOND ROSTAND.

a house in Paris not three minutes' walk from Sarah Bernhardt's home. “Within,” says Mr. Moffett, “are wide staircases and high ceilings, and the eye travels freely from room to room between columns and draped arches and wide glass doors. On the walls are tapestries and somber paintings, under foot soft rugs and polished wood, while the spacious halls and *salon* are furnished with pieces to delight a collector.” Rostand has not only large sums from his play, but inherits much wealth. He has a beautiful and talented wife.

A PICTURE OF THE POET.

Of Rostand himself Mr. Moffett says: “I noticed that he came into the room walking stiff and straight, with a certain dapper dignity, and that his hands are extremely white, with rings on the fingers, a fine sapphire among them.

Then I saw that he was small and slender, very pale, and quite bald for a man of twenty-nine; also that he wore a reddish, bristly mustache, and the Legion of Honor ribbon in his coat. In his right eye was a single staring glass that fixed you rather coldly and added to his general impassiveness. You felt that here was a man to keep his reserve until he saw reason for leaving it, and make sure a person was worth talking to before he said much." Mr. Moffett explains that some such self-withholding attitude is necessary, as the dramatist has been simply hounded by Paris since his success.

ROSTAND'S MAIDEN EFFORTS.

"I asked M. Rostand about his first literary work, and he went back with pride to his twentieth year, when his maiden book of poems, '*Les Musardises*,' was reviewed in the *Revue Bleue* with highest commendation, hailed, in fact, as 'the most brilliant poetic *début* since Alfred de Musset published his "*Contes d'Espagne*."' The writer of this was laughed at then, but he is not laughed at now. I asked Rostand what authors he had admired most from his youth, and he answered without hesitation: Shakespeare, Dickens, and Victor Hugo. Could he read Dickens in English? No, unfortunately. Had he been in England? Not to know anything about it—only ten days at a London hotel. Had he traveled in other countries? No, he had stayed at home.

"I asked him about sports and manly exercises. Was he at all like Cyrano in his own tastes? Was he fond of fencing or sword practice? He was not—thought it too fatiguing. Did he go in for horseback-riding? No, that was also too fatiguing. Then his love of excitement and stirring deeds was more of the head than of the body? Yes, he supposed it was.

HOW CYRANO WAS WRITTEN.

"Coming to the chief purpose of my visit, I was glad to learn that the play '*Cyrano de Bergerac*' was a fruit of slow ripening. Already in his student days at Stanislas College, Paris, and in vacations at Marseilles (his home) it had been in his mind to make a play where the hero's nobility of soul should be offset by some physical defect. And he hit upon Cyrano in the histories (a real hero who had lived), caught at him, in fact, as the very type of what he wanted. Then the love theme grew accidentally from a real happening one summer while he was at the seaside. There was a young fellow, a friend of the Rostands, deeply in love with a very attractive girl. And she was coy, while he was rather clumsy in his wooing. So in good nature and to

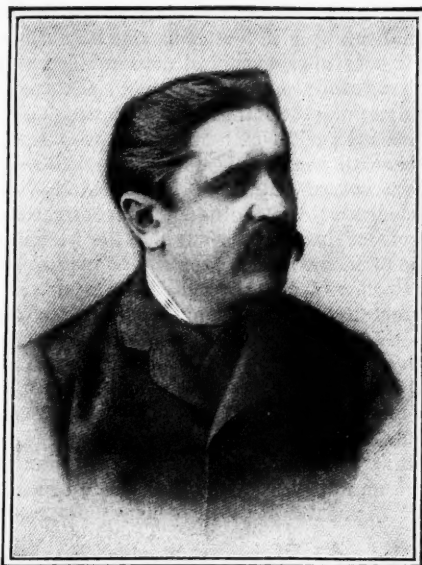
amuse himself Rostand helped out the unsuccessful swain with hints and counsels. Do this, he would say; talk to her about that. Give her certain flowers. Speak of such a poet and such a musician. All this based on a knowledge of the young lady's tastes and aptitudes. And presently Rostand was rewarded by hearing from his wife that the girl had declared the young man much less of a fool than she had thought him. In fact, from that moment things went smoothly for these two, and the affair began to take literary form in Rostand's mind."

NUMA DROZ, THE SWISS STATESMAN.

BY the death of Numa Droz, on December 15, 1899, Switzerland lost a statesman of high rank and a diplomat of more than local reputation. M. Edouard Tallichet, an intimate friend of Droz, supplies in his *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* for January some interesting details in the career of the great political leader.

Numa Droz was born in 1844 at Chaux de Fonds, in the canton of Neuchâtel. By the death of his father, a poor man, he was obliged while yet a boy to earn his own living. But his ambitions began early. While an apprentice, and afterward an artisan engraver, young Droz applied his spare hours to study, and with such success that when he was seventeen he received a certificate entitling him to teach in primary schools. A school was assigned to him in the mountains near the city of Neuchâtel; he taught there for a while and afterward in Neuchâtel itself. It would seem that Droz during this period, and while still a boy, interested himself in politics; for when hardly twenty years of age he became the editor of the radical newspaper *Le National*, published at Chaux de Fonds, his native place. During the next seven years he was the editor of this paper; he never completely severed his connection with it.

The political advancement of Droz was rapid. By the time he was thirty-two years of age he had risen through various grades of public office till he had attained the very high distinction of a place in the federal council. It was here that the exceptional talents of Droz had their best opportunity for exercise. Beginning public life as a fiery radical, his views broadened and his temperament softened as he grew older, so that he never became a fanatic. Then, too, he was always a student, both of men and of things. When, in succession, he was at the head of the departments of agriculture, commerce, and foreign affairs, he had distinct and consistent views which he desired to bring into effect. In the



THE LATE NUMA DROZ.

main his views were more liberal than those of the nations about him, but bringing into play his natural aptitude for diplomacy, he succeeded in negotiating advantageous commercial treaties with Germany, Italy, and France. And it was in diplomacy that Droz attained his highest reputation.

A DIPLOMATIC TRIUMPH FOR LITTLE SWITZERLAND.

Europeans used to say of the United States that the management of her foreign affairs was easy, because she had no frontier. But Switzerland is nearly all frontier. A very little state herself, she is in territorial contact with four powerful nations. Her foreign affairs are correspondingly intricate and difficult. It was the great distinction of Numa Droz that in the long period during which he directed the political department of the Swiss Government—that is, the department of foreign affairs—he succeeded in maintaining the rights and dignity of his own country and at the same time conciliated her arrogant and exacting neighbors. His skill was especially noticeable in the dangerous situation caused by the imprisonment and expulsion from Switzerland of a German agent who had made himself extremely objectionable to the Swiss Government. Prince Bismarck had demanded the immediate release of the accused from imprisonment. Switzerland responded by expelling him from the country. Bismarck demanded that the decree of expulsion should be annulled. Austria and Russia supported his demand. It was in

such a crisis that the great diplomatic talents of Numa Droz found their opportunity and attracted the attention of Europe. Droz first addressed his efforts to detaching Austria and Russia from their support of Germany. By a full and minute statement of the case he succeeded in convincing Russia and Austria that Switzerland was in the right and that the German demand was not well founded. An interchange of several notes between Switzerland and Germany followed. In this correspondence Droz, speaking for Switzerland, maintained undeviating courtesy and dignity, but did not budge an inch from the position originally taken. At last Germany gave way and withdrew her demand.

When the great powers decided to free Crete from the Ottoman yoke they had to provide for it a government. Perhaps they would have given the island to Greece if the transfer, in the circumstances, would not have been too great an affront to Turkey. Then the respect which Droz had attained among European governments procured for him a peculiar honor. A majority of the powers proposed to confer the government of Crete on Numa Droz. He was sounded, and he consented to accept it on conditions. But Germany and Russia objected, and Prince George of Greece was chosen by the powers. Even then Droz was not passed by; he was asked to be the Prince's prime minister. But to that Droz was not inclined. He made conditions which he knew could not be accepted.

The period of the controversy with Bismarck marks the highest level of the popularity of Droz. In small states politics run high and factional disputes are bitter. Questions of internal economy—the insurance of workmen, a national bank, the assumption of railroads by the state, and others—produced violent contentions. Droz took a very active part in the debates on these questions, and drew upon himself intense personal animosity. He accepted the estrangement of friends and of former political associates with outward calm, but there is little doubt that he felt deeply the loss of his influence.

PERSONAL IMPRESSIONS OF JAMES MARTINEAU.

DR. EDWARD EVERETT HALE contributes to the *Outlook* (New York) some entertaining reminiscences of Dr. James Martineau, the great London preacher, whose death at the age of ninety-five was chronicled in last month's *Review*.

Dr. Hale remembers Martineau as a "charming talker" who "would tell a Scotch ghost story in such a way as to make your flesh crawl."

In it all Martineau showed "the courtly elegance of what people call an old-fashioned manner, the cordiality and sympathy and interest which not only made you feel completely at ease, but made you wish that the evening might never be done."

MARTINEAU AND GLADSTONE.

This is Dr. Hale's analysis of Martineau's politics:

"He was an aristocrat through and through. That is to say, though on principle and theoretically democratic, he sympathized in the old-fashioned way of handling the outside of things, and did not care who knew that he did. He wrote to me once, after a Liberal ministry had been turned out, that of course one was glad of any repairs or reforms in the state, but that his feeling was rather that of a person the tiles of whose roofs have needed repair; he is very glad when the tiles are mended, and he is glad to be well rid of the tiler, perhaps for some years. In this case Mr. Gladstone was the tiler, and Martineau was glad to drop back to the quiet of an unreforming government. Somebody said very well of the two men that Martineau, who was Liberal of the Liberals in his theology, was absolutely conservative in his view of English politics, while Gladstone, who was Liberal of the Liberals in his politics, was absolutely conservative in his ecclesiasticism. This remark is true and worth a little meditation."

REFORMING RELIGION AT THE TOP.

"In his earlier writings he describes, in an almost prophetic way, his own subsequent history. He used to provoke the men who were trying to introduce religion into the 'slums,' as our modern phrase has it, among the poorest, wickedest, and vilest people, by saying that we should never do anything which came to much account among such people until we had reformed the religion of those who were to teach them, and that the business of devout and careful thinkers now is not so much to go into the slums as to try to improve the character of the Christianity which should be carried into the slums."

Frances Power Cobbe's Tribute.

The *Contemporary Review* for February contains two articles on the late Dr. Martineau, both of which are from the pens of personal friends. The first is by Miss Frances Power Cobbe and contains extracts from the doctor's letters; the second, by Mr. Philip H. Wicksteed, is shorter and less personal, but not less interesting.

AS A SCHOLAR.

Dr. Martineau's erudition, says Miss Cobbe, was marvelously deep and varied, yet it never

overweighted him as learning is apt to swamp original thinking in less capacious intellects:

"It was always subordinate to his wisdom, which was built on it rather than of it; even as the Olympium at Athens rose on its wide and high-raised peribolus. He was never (so far as we, beneath him, could judge) carried away by the current of any other man's mind; but his knowledge of what others had thought on the subjects of his studies swelled the volume and power of his own conclusions. When we add to this learned wisdom in intellectual matters the remembrance of the calm, steadfast, loftily devoted life, of which to speak as 'blameless' is to give it only the grudging praise which an enemy could not refuse, we have summed up, so it seems to me, very nearly the ideal characteristics of a sage of these later days; a great teacher and example of 'righteous living without asceticism' and of piety without a shade of superstition."

AS A MAN.

Miss Cobbe bears a strong tribute to Dr. Martineau's social qualities—his delicate sympathy and his curious mixture of reticence and self-revelation, which were continually shown in correspondence with his more intimate acquaintances. Here is a letter to Miss Cobbe which illustrates his humor:

"MY DEAR MISS COBBE: Since I became a Highland farmer I have learned what extremely erratic creatures sheep are apt to be! Only three days ago my whole lot, finding a gate open, took it into their heads to leave their pasture and lead me a pretty chase after them, till, without even a dog's help, I ran them down by the roadside and persuaded them that they might as well stop where they were. Can you expect me to repeat the pursuit where there is no hope of bringing the stray ones back and a certainty that they will put me to shame with their delicious pasturage?"

"Having, however, ceased to be a shepherd, here in the south, and become one of the flock, I should certainly be easily drawn to see how my companions fare, and put myself under their lead, on any common which they frequented, if I were not—for some cruel purpose of my masters—tethered by the leg and frightfully barked at even within my permitted circle, so that at present I despair of all escape."

Martineau as a Teacher.

Mr. Wicksteed's article is a more serious study of the great preacher's character and ways. He says:

"If a man is made a great teacher by the power of arousing the intellectual enthusiasm

and firing the spiritual imagination of his hearers, by making them feel the greatness of the subject, by penetrating them with the sense of the beauty of holiness and the beauty of truth, and inspiring them with the conviction that they are not only seeking, but finding, then, as judged by his effect on most (though not on all) of us, Martineau must be regarded as among the greatest of teachers. And if in his lectures he made no direct appeal to us, it was not that his mind was unsympathetic; on the contrary, I have never known a mature mind that retained so exquisite a power of insight and sympathy with young and crude scruples and difficulties as was his. Any of us who so far overcame our sense of the distance between us as to venture to appeal to him in any personal difficulty of intellectual apprehension, in any spiritual or moral perplexity, or any scruple concerning our own conduct in life, invariably found in him a swift-ness of comprehension, a tenderness of appreciative sympathy, and, above all, a true reverence for our spiritual and moral personality which made his counsel or admonition a development of our own characters along clearer or healthier lines, rather than an imposition of his own individuality upon us."

LONGEVITY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the February *Forum* Mr. William R. Thayer gives interesting statistics of the duration of life among certain groups of nineteenth-century brain-workers.

Mr. Thayer believes that longevity, a characteristic which has become too common to attract much attention, distinguishes the nineteenth century from all the preceding centuries. He says:

"During the past one hundred years the length of life of the average man in the United States and in the more civilized parts of Europe has increased from a little over 30 to about 40 years. A multitude of causes, mostly physical, have contributed to this result. Foremost among these should be placed (1) whatever may be included under the general term sanitation; (2) improved methods in medicine; and (3) the more regular habits of living which are the direct outcome of industrial life on a large scale. These are some of the evident means by which life has been lengthened. Inventions, which have made production cheap and the transportation of all products both cheap and easy, have had an influence too great to be computed. And no doubt much has been due to a general improvement in methods of government; although, in the main, there has been much less progress in practical government than is commonly sup-

posed. No great railroad company or banking house or manufacturing corporation could prosper if its officers and employees were chosen and kept in office according to the system by which political offices, almost everywhere, are filled. 'None but experts wanted' is the sign written over the entrance to every profession, trade, and occupation—except government.

"But whatever governments have done or left undone, the fact to be insisted on here is that the average man to-day lives almost ten years longer than his grandfather lived. Indisputably, therefore, the year 1900 finds conditions more conducive to longevity than existed a century ago. This is true beyond question for the masses, who feel immediately the effects of plenty, hunger, and cold—the great physical dispensers of life and death.

ARE WE DYING AT THE TOP?

"But improvement in the conditions essential to the physical well-being of the masses need not imply a similar improvement in the more favored minority, in those who—to make a distinction which is sufficiently exact for our purposes—work with their heads instead of with their hands. And, indeed, the impression has long been current that modern life has been growing more and more destructive to precisely this class. Ever since the wheels of civilization began to turn more swiftly, ever since the introduction of steam power, it has been the fashion to cry out against the acceleration of speed. 'We live too fast;' 'the tension is too great;' 'men are soon worn out or broken down;' 'the pace that kills'—these and similar phrases, commonly accepted without question, indicate the prevalent belief that our era, in spite of its positive gains for some classes, does not conduce to longevity among brain-workers."

It is with a view to determining the truth or falsity of the assertion that modern conditions are really destroying society at the top that Mr. Thayer applies the longevity test. He reasons thus:

"A genius who dies at forty may well be worth to the world more than a thousand sexagenarian men of talent, so that mere number of years in individual cases may count for little; but no community nor considerable class of men lives to old age under permanently unfavorable conditions. The wages of sin—and with sin we must include ignorance of the laws of living—is death. The test of longevity, therefore, will allow us to make some precise deductions concerning modern conditions, just as the annual death-rate tells us something definite about the sanitary conditions of cities."

While Mr. Thayer's lists do not pretend to comprise the names of all the eminent persons in any group, they do aim at giving a sufficiently large number of representative names to furnish the data sought. Of persons born in the eighteenth century only those are cited who lived more than half their lives after 1800. A few living celebrities, whose age already exceeds that of their group, are included.

A general summary of the data recorded by Mr. Thayer shows that the average duration of life in these groups has been about 68 years and 8 months, viz :

SUMMARY.		Average.
46 poets.....	66	
39 painters and sculptors.....	66	
30 musicians.....	62	
26 novelists.....	63	
40 men of letters.....	67	
22 religious.....	66	
35 women.....	69	
18 philosophers.....	65	
38 historians.....	73	
58 scientists and inventors.....	72	
14 agitators.....	69	
48 commanders.....	71	
112 statesmen.....	71	
Average, 68 years, 8 months.		

"Here, then, we have not a theory nor a popular fallacy, but certain definite information concerning nearly 530 of the prominent men and women of the nineteenth century. The assumption has been that modern conditions are destructive to the vitality of just this upper class of brain-workers. The fact is that these persons lived on an average 68 years and 8 months—that is, nearly thirty years longer than the population as a whole. Were we to double the number of names the result would not be very different.

"It may be urged that a considerable minority of these persons grew up in the eighteenth century and died before the distinctive conditions of the nineteenth century had full play. This is true; but on analysis we find that most of the long-lived belong to those whose career fell wholly within the nineteenth century. Roughly speaking, 1820 may be set down as the year when the general adoption of steam power revolutionized methods of manufacturing and of travel by water; as early as 1840 railroads were beginning to affect the distribution of population and of commercial products; by 1860 the electric telegraph had come into general use; and since 1860 one invention after another has helped to quicken the rate of speed at which society moves.

Accordingly we can say that the distinctive conditions of the century have been in full swing for nearly fifty years, and that if injurious their effects would be seen on the men who reached their prime about 1850 or subsequently.

OCTOGENARIANS OF THE CENTURY.

"Our examination has shown that these men have suffered no curtailment of life. Look at the list, and particularly at those who have lived eighty years or longer: Martineau, Döllinger, Leo XIII., Bismarck, Gladstone, Tennyson, Newman, Kossuth, Schœlcher, Queen Victoria, Mrs. J. W. Howe, Malmesbury, Lowe, Selborne, Shaftesbury, J. E. Johnston, Moltke, Görgei, Cialdini, Macmahon, Canrobert, Trochu, Bessemer, Ericsson, Ritter, Owen, H. Rawlinson, Bunsen, Kinglake, Merivale, Bancroft, G. Rawlinson, Ranke, Mommsen, Carlyle, Curtius, Mamiani, Gilbert, Manning, Littré, Verdi, Thomas, Hamlin, Jefferson Davis, William I. Simon, B. St. Hilaire, Gortschakoff, Broglie, Crispi, Crémieux, Maria Mitchell, Henry Taylor, De Lesseps, Morse, Henry, Halévy, Whittier, Holmes, Bryant, Mrs. H. B. Stowe, Spencer, Ruskin, Hugo, Watts, Pusey, Duruy.

"These 65 men and women not only lived long, but, as a rule, they also worked long and hard. Conditions under which the greatest workers in the world live to be octogenarians or older certainly cannot be permanently deleterious. It may be that after another hundred years these modern conditions will have proved injurious and will have undermined the vitality of our grandchildren. My business, however, is not to prophesy, but to ascertain the truth as it exists to-day. That truth, so far as our lists reveal it, is that civilized society is not withering at the top. Incidentally we perceive that the possession of genius, or even of any excellence in a marked degree, carries with it the presumption of unusual vitality. Great men may die young, but in general greatness presupposes a strong hold on life. By the latter I do not mean mere muscular strength. Indeed, many of these patriarchs were physically frail. But I mean strength of will, of intellect, and of character, which have far more influence than we commonly imagine in prolonging life. Whoever doubts this should examine whether the longevity of any 530 athletes of whom there is a record approaches an average of 68 years."

So far as the lives of our most eminent men and women are concerned, the charge of degeneration leveled at our century by certain scientific men seems to lack foundation.

THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

IN the March *Century* there is a very readable article by Dr. Frederick A. Cook, of the Belgian antarctic expedition, on "The Giant Indians of Tierra del Fuego." There are many tribes of the Indians about the Straits of Magellan. Dr. Cook describes the Onas, who have thus far evaded all efforts at civilization and have to the present time, and with good reason, mistrusted white men. The most of these utter savages are on the main island of Tierra del Fuego. The Onas have never been united in a common interest nor have they ever been led by one great chief. They are divided into small clans, under leaders with limited powers, and these chiefs have waged constant warfare among themselves. Now they have a new enemy in the white sheep farmers and gold diggers that have invaded their island. The giant Indians make periodical raids on sheep herds, and not even the presence of Winchester rifles, as against their primitive bows and arrows, can hold them in check. The Onas are giants. Their average height is about six feet, while some are six feet six inches in height. There are only about 1,600 of them altogether, divided into sixteen tribes. The women are not so tall, but are more corpulent. Dr. Cook says there is no race in the world with a more perfect physical development than the Ona men. They live entirely by hunting and have no houses nor even tents, a mere shelter of skins and brush serving to give them what little immunity they need from rains and storms.

RUSSIA'S ASIATIC RAILROAD AMBITIONS.

Alexander Hume Ford writes on "The Warfare of Railways in Asia," and tells of the Russian foresight which has seized Siberia and Trans-Caspia and planted a great railroad system there, from which branch lines are about to radiate. One of these branch lines is aiming for Constantinople, the next almost touches Teheran, the middle one is in central Asia, has touched Herat, and will soon reach Kandahar. The fourth, starting from Samarkand, has already reached the border of China and aims at Peking, and a fifth has already advanced to the capital of China. Mr. Ford gives an account of the railroad interests of the other nine nations in Asia. The very greatest thorn in Russia's side is Japan's only railroad concession on the whole continent, that in Korea, from Fusan to Seoul. This promises to be the cause of what Mr. Ford calls the evidently inevitable conflict over Asiatic railroad concessions, and may compel Russia to winter her Pacific squadron in Nagasaki harbor. Japan, feeling sure of the backing of England and China, wishes to bring matters to a trial of conclusions before the completion of the Trans-Siberian Railway, which will forever settle the doom of Korea as an independent nation; but Russia has given England assurances which, for the sake of peace, Great Britain accepts as if she really believed them to be in earnest.

ANIMALS ABOUT TO BECOME EXTINCT.

In an excellent first article of a series entitled "The National Zoo at Washington," in which Ernest Seton-Thompson makes a study of its animals in relation to their national environment, he makes a plea for the

preservation of some specimens of the great Alaskan bear, the largest and most wonderful of its race. He says that in one year, or at most in two years, unless Congress is willing to vote the price or half the price of a single big gun to it, the world will lose this animal, in the same way that it has lost the great auk, the Labrador duck, and the West India seal. There are other American species, too, which are bound to become absolutely extinct unless the National Zoo comes to the aid of the study of natural history. Mr. Thompson mentions the bighorn sheep, the coast blacktail, the mule-deer, the moose, and the mountain goat, as well as the grizzly bear.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March *Harper's* Capt. A. T. Mahan discusses "The Problem of Asia." Russia he calls the largest single element in forming the future of Asia. This happens because "only parts of the Russian territory, and those, even in the aggregate, small and unimportant comparatively to the whole, enjoy the benefits of maritime commerce. It is therefore the interest of Russia not merely to reach the sea at more points and more independently, but to acquire, by possession or by control, the usufruct of other and extensive maritime regions, the return from which shall redound to the general prosperity of the entire empire." Captain Mahan thinks that it is a wrong attitude for outside states to take, when they offer only opposition and hostility toward Russia in the face of these conditions. He thinks that states that have a requisite seaboard and well-rounded physical conditions owe at the least candor, if not sympathy, to Russia in her situation. Nevertheless, in the readjustment of the Asiatic organisms other nations have the duty to see that the proper equilibrium is attained. He hopes that we may avoid a struggle in the dismembering of Asia and rely on "the artificial methods of counsel and agreement," which seem somewhat more suitable to the present day.

AT HOME WITH THE BOERS.

In his article on "Pretoria Before the War" Mr. Howard C. Hillegas protests against many misrepresentations of Boer character and life. He bears witness to the cleanliness of the Boer household, and he says that the typical young Boer is an educated man, often from the European universities, where his father has been able to send him because of the discovery of gold on his farm. The younger Boers were anxious for modern civilization, while the older men lived according to the laws and examples recorded in the Bible and believed the slightest deviation from obedience to those precepts was sinful. In Pretoria Mr. Hillegas said that one could always meet oily tongued, faultlessly attired concession seekers and lobbyists, sent by the mining interests at Johannesburg to bribe or kidnap a Raad member if the uncertainty of the passage of a bill warranted it. With them were many English journalists, and Mr. Hillegas wonders that the Boers allowed these correspondents to remain, as they were avowedly in Pretoria to note the shortcomings of the government and prepare British public opinion for the interference which later led to the war. It was all the more aston-

ishing that President Krüger should have tolerated these correspondents when he knew that the men who own mines at Johannesburg also had controlling interests in several of the London journals.

GERMANY'S CHINESE COLONY.

Mr. Poultney Bigelow, under the title "Germany's First Colony in China," describes Kiao-Chau. The Germans had not fortified Kiao-Chau, but had mounted a few field guns to protect against Chinese raids. The town is being Germanized rapidly, the names of the streets being all after the manner of Berlin. All the Chinese knew a little German, according to one of the officials, but Mr. Bigelow did not find any great proficiency in the language of the Kaiser. Mr. Bigelow does not think that the Germans have done much in the way of civilizing the Chinese about Kiao-Chau as yet. He cites the instance of an American railroad syndicate to show that the Germans have their eyes open for an extension of their colonial rights. This syndicate, in conjunction with English capitalists, had been negotiating for the construction of a railroad between Peking and the mouth of the Yang-tse River. The matter was all arranged and the money had been raised, according to a cable to England, on August 25, 1898. Four days afterward, however, the German minister in Peking told the English Government that this railroad should not be built, because it crossed territory a few hundred miles from Kiao-Chau which the Germans chose to regard as being within their sphere of influence.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

THE March *Scribner's* opens with Mr. H. J. Whigham's account of "The Fighting with Methuen's Division" in the actions at Belmont, Gras Pan, and Modder River. Mr. Whigham writes from the very strongest pro-British point of view. It is "our army," "our advance," etc.; but he takes occasion to deny most explicitly that the Boers were treacherous, judged by the laws of civilized warfare. As for the report that the wounded Boers continued to fight and shoot down their enemies, he says very sensibly that a wounded man has a perfect right to go on fighting if he wants to risk being shot himself. He says that none of the wounded Boers were even fired at after assistance had been offered. He tells of a significant incident in the capture of two wealthy men of Johannesburg of German extraction, who were out of the Transvaal when war became imminent and went back voluntarily to fight for their country. They were friendly with the Englishmen in Johannesburg, were well educated as well as wealthy, and were more English in their ideas and customs than anything else. London was their city outside of South Africa, yet they voluntarily came back to the Transvaal and threw in their lot with the Boers, "not, be it remembered, from purely patriotic motives, because neither of them is a Boer, but apparently because they had hopes of ultimate success for the Boer cause."

THE EXPANDING CABLE SYSTEMS.

In "The Point of View" a paragraph calls attention to the immense advance in cable facilities which imperial duties will necessitate. The writer thinks that it is but a short time when every English, German, and French colony will have its cable communications direct to London, Berlin, and Paris. In Washington we are

discussing an imperial cable system to the new possessions in the Philippines, and, indeed, when one considers how vastly necessary cable communications are in the huge trading associations called empires, one may wonder why the telegraph system of the globe has not been more nearly perfected before this.

A RENAISSANCE OF LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE.

Mr. G. F. Pentecost, Jr., writes on "The Renaissance of Landscape Architecture." He writes in sympathy with the revival of interest in the old formal style gardening, and he makes an interesting plan based on Bacon's essay of gardening.

McCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March *McClure's* are a sketch of Edmond Rostand, the author of "Cyrano de Bergerac," written by Mr. Cleveland Moffett, and Mr. Walter Wellman's account of the disaster to the arctic expedition of 1898-99, which we have reviewed in another department.

A RAILROAD TO THE KLONDIKE.

Mr. Cy Warman tells about "Building a Railroad Into the Klondike," and gives the story of the construction of the road over the new White Pass and Yukon Line. By this line one travels from San Francisco 1,750 miles or from Seattle 1,080 miles by steamer to Skagway, and then takes the railroad by way of Lake Bennett, White Horse Rapids, and the Lewis River to Fort Selkirk on the Yukon. A small piece of the railroad from Skagway to Lake Bennett is now completed, as much more is promised to be completed about June, 1900, and the larger portion, from White Horse Rapids to Fort Selkirk, has been surveyed. Mr. Warman tells us that the pessimistic reports of the "busting" of the Klondike boom and the deadness of Dawson are not borne out by his experience, although men have been saying these things for months. In August, 1899, he found Skagway full of people, busy, happy, and hopeful. Mr. Warman thinks that next summer a man who figures his connections carefully will be able to get from Chicago to Dawson City in less than nine days, allowing, as Mr. Warman picturesquely puts it, "from Chicago to Seattle, three sleeps; Seattle to Skagway, three sleeps; Skagway to White Horse, half a day; White Horse to Dawson, two sleeps; total, eight and a half days."

THE VOYAGE OF THE "DESTROYER."

Capt. Joshua Slocum, whose account of his voyage around the world we have been reading in the *Century*, describes in this number of *McClure's* "The Voyage of the 'Destroyer' from New York to Brazil." The *Destroyer* was a ship fitted out by a Yankee trader for the use of Mr. Peixoto, president of Brazil, to enable him to scare the rebellious navy into submission. This ship was a formidable craft, invented by Ericsson, of about 130 tons register. She carried a brass cannon 43 feet long, built securely in the bows eight feet below the water-line. This gun, with a charge of 50 pounds of powder, fired a projectile 35 feet long and carrying 350 pounds of compressed gun-cotton, which by contact would explode and destroy anything afloat. Captain Slocum gives a dramatic account of the dangerous voyage to Bahia, Brazil, on this strange craft. The *Destroyer* never destroyed anything except herself, being

smashed on a rock as soon as they got into port, but the rebel fleet did not know of it and surrendered on the news of her arrival.

The March *McClure's* continues "The Life of the Master," by the Rev. John Watson, in Part III., which includes the calling of the disciples and the beginning of Jesus' ministry. In each number there are several colored pictures which remind one much of the Tissot paintings.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

MR. WILLIAM MARSH writes in the March *Cosmopolitan* on wolves that are respectable, and supports his contention that the wolf may be domesticated by some extraordinary pictures of gray wolves which have been tamed and domesticated on the ranch of a Mr. Bothwell in Wyoming. The illustrations show girls and young men frolicking with the gray beasts as one would with a very tractable dog.

*CALIFORNIA'S FLOWER GARDENS.

In describing "The World's Largest Truck Gardens" Mr. John E. Bennett tells how California has come to devote vast areas to a single product because of the use of machinery and the inability of one sort of machine to work another crop than that for which it was designed. He tells us that it has been demonstrated that California can compete, even with cut flowers, with the hot-house flowers of the East, and that the flower farms of that State are destined to occupy a high place in the coast's material assets. The flowers are grown in the open air, of course, and are much superior in strength, beauty, and durability to the hot-house product.

SERVANT GIRLS' UNIONS.

In her prize essay on "The Servant Question" Mrs. Flora McDonald Thompson has the temerity to advise servant girls' unions, to be met with associations of housewives. Her ground for such an awful suggestion is that "the only possible form in which scattered opposing forces may accomplish anything but alternating oppression and rebellion" is organization.

THURLOW WEED AS EDITOR AND POLITICIAN.

In a new series of articles on "Great Editors of America" Postmaster-General Charles Emory Smith gives a sketch of Thurlow Weed, whom he calls the most conspicuous editor of his State—until the rise of metropolitan journalism—and the acknowledged dictator of his political party for twenty years. He was at the same time the most adroit and consummate politician, perhaps, that the country has ever known. It is doubtful if any other man in all our history has so completely and successfully blended the attributes of the political oracle and the political manager.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

IN the March *Munsey's* Mr. Waldon Fawcett describes, under the title "The World's Greatest Canal," the "Soo," the water gateway of the Northwest, and its huge volume of commerce, which far exceeds the tonnage that traverses the Suez Canal or that enters the port of New York. The aggregate tonnage of the lake craft, indeed, exceeds the entire fleet on our Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf coasts. The huge canal Mr. Fawcett describes locks through vessels carrying cargoes of 8,000 tons. The "Soo" has two magnificent

locks, one of which is the largest in the world, and which are operated free of cost so far as the vessels are concerned. Through the larger four steamers can lock simultaneously. This one cost the Government \$5,000,000. It is more than 800 feet in length and 100 feet wide. Lake commerce, though it has reached such magnitude, is still in a period of transition. The activities of the Rockefeller and Carnegie interests in the lake regions have produced new types of transportation units. The vessels are increasing in size very rapidly, and one has the spectacle on the lakes of a steamer quite the equal in size of the average trans-Atlantic liner of a few years ago towing behind it one or two immense barges. Thus one engine hauls down the lakes at a speed of about eleven miles an hour enough iron ore to fill about thirty ordinary freight trains.

AMERICANS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Mr. Allen Sangree, a New York journalist who has been the secretary of the United States consul-general in Cape Town and made many official journeys through South Africa, tells of "Americans in South Africa." He speaks of great and increasingly important American interests in the Transvaal region, and he makes it out that the American element in the local population is an energetic and picturesque factor. Mr. Sangree says that formerly there was a reaction against the purchase of American goods, machinery, etc., in Africa, as it was said that the Yankee wares were pretty, but would not wear. This cry is heard no more, however, and the colonial Englishman is a good customer of our manufactures. Many kinds of wares and machinery are being rapidly introduced from this country—agricultural implements, carpenters' tools, screws, door trimmings, wire fencing, corrugated sheet iron, office furniture, safes, canned meats, fruits, and even eggs. Indeed, Mr. Sangree says that with the exception of jewelry and clothing, almost any American product can be sold profitably in South Africa.

THE WAR AGAINST CONSUMPTION.

Dr. John H. Girdner, in his article on "The War Against Consumption," tells of the discoveries that have shown tuberculosis to be a preventable disease, with precautions by which it might be avoided, and what has actually been done in this and other countries toward stamping out the most fatal scourge of humanity. Of the actual results of the work of education and of the examination of infected cattle is shown the table of death-rates from tuberculosis diseases in New York City for the twelve years prior to 1898. There is almost a continuous decrease from 442 deaths in 1886 to 285 in 1897. In England and Wales the death-rate has been reduced from more than 38 per 10,000 in 1888 to about 13 in 10,000 at the present time.

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

IN the March *Ladies' Home Journal* the editor comments on the turn of the tide of women going into business occupations other than dressmaking, teaching, and domestic pursuits. The beginning of the movement toward business pursuits for women began about 1870, and by 1890 there were nearly 4,000,000 women engaged in gainful pursuits of all kinds, and since 1890 there has been a still further large increase. But Mr. Bok thinks there is a change of sentiment, and that

while a number of business positions for which women are especially fitted will still be held by them, and creditably, still the day of woman's promiscuously going into business is over, the weeding process having begun. Mr. Bok thinks this is a good thing, and answers the question as to what will become of all the women who would otherwise have gone in business by saying that they will go back to the home as domestic helpers.

MR. BEECHER'S STIMULANTS.

The article on "The Anecdotal Side of Great Men" is concerned this month with Mr. Beecher. A paragraph in it says that Mr. Beecher's imagination seemed to be peculiarly sensitive to certain influences and that he was very notably affected by tea and coffee. A cup of strong tea produced a most depressing effect on his whole being, making him see things on their dark side, and coffee, on the other hand, made everything look bright and rosy.

THE GREENROOM OBSOLETE.

In the series of articles on "The Theater and Its People" Mr. Franklin Fyles takes us into the dressing-room of the actress with becoming modesty. He tells us the theatrical greenroom of history and tradition, for the common use of the players, has become a thing of the past. The dressing-rooms are still miserable little coops in the poorer theaters, but the new theaters, while they may have the quarters small, give clean rooms, adequately furnished, and even include bath-rooms among the luxuries. Mr. Fyles, in discreetly unveiling some of the mysteries of the make-up, assures us that no genuine complexion is ever seen on the stage. The glare of artificial light, no matter what the brilliancy of the complexion, would make almost any face seem ghastly white or unpleasantly sallow.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

IN the March *Atlantic Monthly* ex-Secretary Richard Olney opens the number with an article on our growing foreign relations, which we have quoted from in another department, and we have also reviewed in the same department Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson's article on "The Political Horizon." Mr. Everett P. Wheeler, writing on "The Unofficial Government of Cities," thinks that the wise reformer should be an opportunist; that he should "sow beside all waters" and "mitigate where he cannot cure." He feels called on to admit, in the consideration of the typical boss, that in some cases these political leaders give very intelligent directions which are distinctly beneficial to the public, and that in many respects public business is better done through their influence than it would be without it. A great point, he thinks, for good citizens to insist on is not necessarily that these political leaders should be done away with, but that they should perform their functions with more regard to the public interest.

A ROMP WITH NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

An exceedingly readable article is "A Girl of Sixteen at Brook Farm," by Ora G. Sedgwick. The writer's reminiscences of Charles A. Dana and Hawthorne are unusually lively and interesting. She says that Hawthorne talked but little at the table and was a very taciturn man, but that he could unbend is shown dramatically by her account of a frolic in which she and her roommate, Ellen Slade, indulged:

"One evening he was alone in the hall, sitting on a chair at the further end, when my roommate, Ellen Slade, and myself were going upstairs. She whispered to me: 'Let's throw the sofa pillows at Mr. Hawthorne.' Reaching over the banisters, we each took a cushion and threw it. Quick as a flash he put out his hand, seized a broom that was hanging near him, warded off our cushions, and threw them back with sure aim. As fast as we could throw them at him he returned them with effect, hitting us every time, while we could hit only the broom. He must have been very quick in his movements. Through it all not a word was spoken. We laughed and laughed, and his eyes shone and twinkled like stars."

GERMAN SENTIMENT FOR THE BOERS.

In "A Letter from Germany" Mr. William C. Dreher says that the German public has its attention chiefly occupied with the war in South Africa, and that its attitude is one of practically unanimous condemnation of England's course toward the Transvaal. No newspaper of influence and no public man of note defends England. Even her traditional friends among the Germans, who have been working for English political ideals in Germany, complain bitterly against Mr. Chamberlain. The large element of anti-English sentiment is reinforced by the impartial thought which strongly disapproves of England's treatment of the Boers on moral grounds.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

SINCE its removal to Cleveland several new features have been introduced into the *Chautauquan*. A department of "Highways and Byways" consists of comment on matters of current interest. A series of articles on "The Expansion of the American People," by Prof. Edwin E. Sparks, is now appearing. In connection with these papers the *Chautauquan's* enterprise in obtaining data for the systematic study of the migrations of American families is worthy of notice. The coöperation of local historical societies, patriotic organizations, and individuals is sought.

Another important *Chautauquan* serial is "A Reading Journey Through France." In the February number Prof. Frederick M. Warren describes the suburbs of Paris. The Rev. Charles M. Stuart, D.D., contributes to this number a paper on "The Inner Life of Dwight L. Moody." Among the interesting illustrated articles in this number are Mr. A. Goodwin Culver's description of "Kaskaskia: A Vanished Capital," and Elizabeth M. Elgin's "Painters of the Barbizon School."

In the matter of illustration the *Chautauquan* has made notable strides of late.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

ABOUT two-thirds of the February number of the *North American* is given up to the war in South Africa and allied subjects. The military and strategical situation is discussed from British, German, and American points of view by Lieut.-Gen. John F. Owen, Capt. Fritz Hoenig, and Gen. O. O. Howard, respectively. On the subject of race rivalry in South Africa Mr. Henry Cust, late editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, contributes a paper which formulates a justification of England's course, from which we have quoted in another depart-

ment. Dr. J. C. Voigt, author of "Fifty Years of the Republic in South Africa," gives an exposition of the Dutch side of the controversy; while Mr. Montagu White, recently consul-general of the Transvaal in London, writes on "The Danger of Personal Rule in South Africa."

Dr. Theodor Mommsen, the venerable historian, contributes a brief summary of "German Feeling Toward England and America" in the form of a letter in reply to questions propounded by Mr. Sidney Whitman. As regards the United States, Dr. Mommsen's most significant remark relates to what he regards as an imminent change of internal American politics, "involving a revolution in military and naval matters."

MR. MOODY AS FATHER CONFESSOR.

Dr. Lyman Abbott, writing on "The Power of Mr. Moody's Ministry," traces a kind of parallel between the authority professed by the high-church priest of the Anglican Church and that assumed by Mr. Moody himself in hearing confessions and pronouncing absolution. "The one no less than the other spoke, or claimed to speak, by authority; both derived their authority from the same great historic fact; and the attractive power which drew unnumbered thousands to the preaching of Mr. Moody was in its essence the same as that which draws unnumbered thousands to the altar and the eucharist."

THE UNITED STATES AS A COLONIAL ADMINISTRATOR.

Gen. Thomas Anderson, who commanded the first expeditionary land force from the United States to the Philippine Islands, writes on "Our Rule in the Philippines." As to our ability to establish a stable government in the Philippines, General Anderson regards certain things as distinctly in our favor. Among these are the facts that the people have no other traditional allegiance and no governmental traditions; that they wish to break all connection between church and state and to try a representative form of government; and that they look upon the United States as the best example of republican government. General Anderson does not disregard the spirit of faction resulting from a long period of oppression and misrule, but he is optimistic enough to hope that education and good government may in time work regeneration.

A much less hopeful article is that of Maj. J. E. Runcie, entitled "American Misgovernment in Cuba." He holds that in only two branches of the administration in Cuba has there been satisfactory advance over the previously existing conditions—the revenue department and the department of sanitation and public health, both of which have been absolutely under American control.

"In other words, where Americans have been allowed to work, with American methods, the result has been distinguished success. On the other hand, wherever Cubans have been allowed to proceed, by any methods of their own choice, they have invariably clung to the methods of Spain, which they have employed for their own ends, not for the public good; and the result is disastrous failure, for which Americans are responsible. Not one step has been taken toward a realization of the purposes of the intervention. The problem has become, by reason of neglect and incompetency, more difficult to-day than it was a year ago. The house was swept and garnished, but the door was left open and the seven other devils seem to have taken advantage of

the opportunity. If no change occurs soon the last state of Cuba bids fair to be far worse than the first."

Mr. Edward Atkinson contributes an article on "Eastern Commerce: What Is It Worth?" the burden of which is that the United States should "stand and wait for commerce, taking care not to interrupt it by war and by criminal aggression."

Ex-Senator Pepper writes on "The Trust in Politics" and Mr. W. E. Henley reviews some novels of 1899.

THE FORUM.

IN another department we have quoted from the article by Mr. William R. Thayer on longevity in the February *Forum*.

Lieut.-Gen. Den Beer Poortugael, member of the Holland Privy Council, makes an important presentation of the Boer side of the South African dispute, replying to the arguments of Mr. James G. Whiteley in an article which appeared in the *Forum* for October, 1899.

THE FUTURE OF THE POPULISTS.

Senator Marion Butler, chairman of the People's Party National Executive Committee, attempts an answer to the assertion now frequently made that the People's party is disintegrating. Senator Butler declares, on the other hand, that the national convention of the party will be held as early as April or May next and will nominate candidates for President and Vice-President. As an explanation of the fact that the party has not grown rapidly as an organization, Senator Butler directs attention to the history of the Democratic party since 1892, showing that the principles of the People's party were forced upon the Democrats at Chicago in 1896, and that the adoption of the Democratic platform of that year and the candidacy of Mr. Bryan could have no other effect than to check temporarily the growth of the People's party as an organization. Senator Butler holds that the People's party platform contains the only sure remedy for the trust evil. "Should the Democratic party fail to advance and to keep pace with the demands of commerce and civilization, should it again become simply a party of negation, as it has too often been in the past, the People's party in the next election would poll over 6,000,000 votes."

Mr. David Willcox writes on "The Futility of the Anti-Trust Issue," holding that the federal anti-trust act of 1890 fully covers the ground, that the courts are giving it all the effect warranted by the Constitution, and that the combinations prohibited by it have for the most part ceased to exist.

EDUCATION, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

President Charles W. Dabney, of the University of Tennessee, advocates the establishment of a national university on the lines proposed by Washington. He argues that what is wanted is not another general university to rival established institutions, but a graduate school for science, first, together with schools for social science, jurisprudence, and international law, especially for the training of diplomats and consuls. As far as the department of science is concerned, Washington already has nearly all the laboratories and men required. President Dabney asserts that instruction might begin in science within a month if only the building, a central organization, and a few thousand dollars for current expenses were provided.

The Hon. J. L. M. Curry directs attention to the needs of Southern colleges—a department of educational activity too generally neglected. Dr. Curry makes the assertion that “some colored schools have been so liberally aided that they have a larger annual income and pay out for ordinary expenses more than any Southern white university and more than can be used without unwise indebtedness by four or five colleges.”

Mr. A. C. True, Director of Experiment Stations in the United States Department of Agriculture, contributes an article on “University Extension and Agriculture,” describing the work done by the United States Department of Agriculture and the agricultural experiment stations of the different States, through farmers’ institutes, home-reading courses, and other instrumentalities of this nature. Especially interesting is the attempt made by Prof. L. H. Bailey, of Cornell University, to introduce nature study into the rural schools by means of printed leaflets.

REFORM IN CHINA.

The Rev. Dr. Gilbert Reid contributes an important article on social and political reform in China. Unlike Japan, China is not left to make her own reforms, but is halted at every step by her international relations. Reforms lie in abeyance, but the Chinese respect learning, and if their own learning of many centuries can be retained while the learning from abroad is assimilated, the doors will be opened to truth and the country prepared for a vital and enduring reformation.

OTHER ARTICLES.

The arguments for and against old-age pensions are presented by the Hon. Michael Davitt, M.P., and the Hon. William H. Lecky, respectively; the Hon. F. C. Penfield, formerly United States diplomatic agent to Egypt, writes on the crushing of Mahdism; and Mr. David W. Yancey describes the present deplorable administration of government in the Indian Territory.

THE ARENA.

IN the *Arena* for February the *pros* and *cons* of Mormonism are set forth by Mr. A. T. Schroeder, of the Salt Lake City bar, writing on “The Mormon Breach of Faith,” and Mr. Theodore W. Curtis, describing Brigham H. Roberts as “The Dreyfus of America.”

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC TOPICS.

Rev. Dr. H. T. Burgess describes several interesting social experiments in Australia, including state railroad system, government, telegraph, education, charities, and other departments of governmental activity.

There are two articles in this number on the money question. Mr. Henry Wood gives several cogent reasons why the unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 would be practically silver monometallism and, hence, disastrous; Mr. J. A. Collins, on the other hand, argues against the use of metallic money, since the volume of money metals being limited, the class that controls them has become virtually a despotism.

Lydia Ross, M.D., points out some of the immoral features of a competitive system, and Mr. Francis D. Tandy discusses certain of the problems connected with strikes, trusts, boycotts, and black lists.

Mr. Albert Watkins’ paper on “Radicalism—East and West” is reviewed in our department of “Leading Articles of the Month.”

Prof. William Carey Jones, of the University of California, describes the college of commerce recently organized in that institution, the curriculum of which includes as distinctive subjects economic, legal, political, and geographical studies, technological studies concerning transportation, and technological studies concerning the materials of commerce.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. C. Giffin contributes a paper on “Evolution Versus Imperialism;” F. C. Barker tells “How War Helps Trade;” Lurana W. Sheldon writes on “The Fifth Commandment;” and Edward C. Farnsworth and Swami Abhedananda discuss certain teachings of the Vedanta philosophy.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE.

THE principal feature in *Gunton's* for February is the discussion of labor in the South. Prof. Jerome Dowd, of Trinity College, North Carolina, endeavors to disprove the assertion so commonly made in the North that Southern cheap labor is due to a low standard of living among the employed classes. He admits that the Southern operatives receive less money than Northern operatives, but contends that with a given sum they can buy much more than the laborers of the North can buy. House rent, furniture, clothing, and provisions all require less outlay in the Southern States. To make good this contention Professor Dowd cites the statistics published by the United States Commissioner of Labor and makes a comparison of the prices for articles of food in Lowell, Mass., and Durham, N. C. He concludes that the average factory family in Massachusetts spends \$53.26 per year for bread, while the average expenditure in North Carolina is only \$44.78.

THE COST OF LIVING IN THE SOUTH.

Professor Gunton, however, does not feel assured by his contributor's reasoning that the cost of living is actually lower in Southern manufacturing centers than in Northern towns of similar size and character. He has just visited a number of factory towns in North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, and his observation is that most articles of food are sold at essentially the same prices in factory towns of similar size both South and East. He found like conditions to exist in the case of clothing and furniture, and although he admits that house rent is lower in the South, he was impressed with the inferior quality of the houses. Professor Gunton, therefore, is heartily in favor of a restriction of the hours of labor as a means of raising the standard of living.

In an article on “The Mormon Power in America” Mr. J. M. Scanland declares that the growing power of the Mormon Church is a menace to our Government and even to civilization. The church leaders, he says, believe it is their mission to rule the United States and ultimately the world, both spiritually and temporally, uniting church and state; and he asserts that they will work unceasingly to that end unless checked by some authority.

Prof. W. F. Edwards advocates the founding of a national university “where training shall be a minimum and research of a high order shall be a maximum.” Professor Edwards’ ideal is partially embodied in Clark University, at Worcester, Mass.

THE INTERNATIONAL MONTHLY.

THE political article in the February *International Monthly* is entitled "Japan's Entry Into the World's Politics," and is contributed by President Garrett Droppers, of the University of South Dakota, who was formerly a professor in the University of Tokyo. President Droppers sees in modern Japan a fair reflection of Western institutions and culture. Japan's aim is not to attempt to lead in the world's progress, but merely to keep step with the rank and file. In his opinion she has not yet met the full test of independent capacity, notwithstanding the fact that during 1899 she entered upon all the rights and privileges of a civilized nation in her relations with other world powers.

Three of the five articles in this number of the *International Monthly* are devoted to art. The opening paper, by W. J. Stillman, discusses art as a means of expression. Mr. H. D. Finck, the musical critic, writes on "The Opera in America and Europe," and Mr. E. Charlton Black outlines the future of the short story.

Prof. C. H. Toy, of Harvard, reviews "Recent Work in the Science of Religion."

THE SEWANEE REVIEW.

THE first number of this quarterly for 1900 is late in its appearance. The opening article, on "Remedies for Lynch Law," by "A Southern Lawyer," has been reviewed in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."

In this number there is an interesting sketch of the late Prof. William Malone Baskerville, of Vanderbilt University, who died on September 6, 1899. Professor Baskerville is perhaps best known to the country at large as the author of "Southern Writers," that admirable series of biographical and critical studies.

Mr. Albert Watkins contributes a paper on "The Whigs as Anti-Expansionists," the motive of which is to show that those Whig leaders who declared their opposition to national expansion, so far from losing standing or prestige in their party, became the more influential in that organization and in its successor, the Republican party.

This number contains reviews of Fiske's "Through Nature to God," "The Stories of James Lane Allen," and the autobiography of Mrs. Oliphant. The second portion of Prof. W. P. Trent's "Poetry of the American Plantations" also appears in this number.

THE ANGLO-SAXON REVIEW.

THE belated appearance of the third volume of Lady Randolph Churchill's quarterly is due to the fact that the edition was destroyed by fire at the London printers' in December last. The cover design of this volume is very beautiful. The six portraits in photogravure which have a place in Volume III.—of Paderewski, Napoleon Bonaparte, Percy Bysshe Shelley, Mary Shelley, George Canning, and the mother of Mary Queen of Scots—are remarkably successful reproductions and show how much we owe to modern processes of illustration.

WAR ARTICLES.

As was naturally to be expected, a great part of the present volume is concerned with the South African War. Mr. Spenser Wilkinson writes on the art of

going to war, Mr. Lionel Phillips on "Past and Future in South Africa," Mr. Stephen Wheeler on "Sikhs and Boers: A Parallel," and Mr. Sidney Low on "Some Battlepieces," while Lady Randolph Churchill herself devotes several pages to editorial discussion of the war, very appropriately quoting the record of her son's impressions made while a prisoner at Pretoria.

As if these papers were not sufficient to slake the British thirst for martial discourse, a paper entitled "War Memories" is contributed by Stephen Crane, one of the very few Americans who have thus far secured admission to the charmed circle of the *Anglo-Saxon*. The financial and political condition of Spain is reviewed by Señor Moret y Prendergast.

Mr. G. R. Askwith contributes some notes on the personalities connected with the Anglo-Venezuelan arbitration at Paris. This writer has only words of praise for Mr. Justice Brewer and for ex-President Benjamin Harrison, General Tracy, Mr. Soley, and Mr. Mallet-Prevost, the Americans who presented Venezuela's case.

Mr. David Hannay, writing of "Our Sea Fights with the Dutch," says that the Englishman who looks back on his country's naval history gets a great respect for the Dutch.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

BESIDES the five articles in the February *Fortnightly* relating to the war and South Africa, there are several papers that call for special notice.

THE MODERN DRAMA.

There are three articles about the drama. Professor Hertford translates a scene from Ibsen's "Love's Comedy," which he declares is incomparably the finest of the few plays of Ibsen which still remain inaccessible to the English reader. Mr. G. Barnett Smith devotes sixteen pages to an article upon Richard Cumberland, the novelist and dramatist, who was described by Oliver Goldsmith as "the Terence of England, the mender of hearts." More interesting than either of these is Mr. George Moore's "Preface to the Bending of the Bough." It is impossible to write plays in England excepting for money, and what is done for money is mediocre. Only sport has escaped the thralldom of money. What Mr. Moore wishes to see is that two or three individuals should spend money on an Irish literary theater as freely as they would upon pheasant-shooting. Mr. Moore maintains that art has passed from England. England has sung enough, and there are no songs like her songs, and now she is engaged in the work of middle age. Art has left France, Germany, and Russia. It still lingers in Norway, but the only place in the western hemisphere which is likely to afford a home for art is Ireland. Art shuns wealth, but art needs some ease of life. For the first time for centuries starvation and oppression seem fading from the face of Ireland. The language is reviving, serious poetry is beginning again, and plays written without desire of gain for love of art are offered to the Irish rather than to the English public.

THE RUSKIN HALL MOVEMENT.

Two writers unite to tell us the advantages of Ruskin Hall, an institution established at Oxford as a labor college. Residence at Ruskin Hall costs 10 shillings (\$2.50) a week, including board, lodging, and plain laundry. The tuition fees amount to 10 shillings a month,

and thus for £31 (\$155) a student may be in residence for a year, attend the whole course of lectures, and have the advantage of tutorial supervision. Scholarships valued at £6 (\$30) a year have been provided, and arrangements are made for the extension of these scholarships. Negotiations are going on for establishing a second school in Birmingham and a third in Manchester. There is a correspondence department which has about 600 members. The fee is £2 (\$10) for the first month and a shilling (25 cents) a month afterward. The aim and object of Ruskin Hall is to teach its students citizenship, to teach them how to be better men rather than better machines. The institution seems to have a prospect of considerable development.

RUSSIA AND MOROCCO.

A writer signing himself "Calpe" complains that Russia is showing indications of activity in Morocco, where she has no interests, and is only acting at the instigation of France. England holds one-third of the entire commerce of Morocco and Russia has none at all. Nevertheless Morocco is going to exhibit at Paris and is even thinking of exhibiting at Glasgow. Russia has one solitary subject—a native Jew—in Morocco, but she maintains a minister and a legation at the court of the Sultan, and lately she has established a Russian credit bank. The writer of the article thinks that France has made a serious blunder in thrusting Russia into Morocco. He thinks that the action of Russia is a very grave menace.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Judge O'Connor Morris takes Sir Herbert Maxwell's life of Wellington as the text for an article on the great Duke. Mr. W. H. Mallock once more expounds his views as to the lack of logic in the non-dogmatic Christianity of Mrs. Humphry Ward.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for February is largely devoted to the new discovery of Britain's military inefficiency and the remedies required. The number begins with an article by the late Sir George Chesney on the "'Confusion Worse Confounded' at the War Office," which is followed by one from Sir Herbert Maxwell on the militia. Lord de Vesci writes on "The Militia Ballot" and Col. Lonsdale Hale on "Our Peace Training for War." Mr. John Macdonell's article on "Neutrals and the War" has also a timely interest.

CONTINUITY OF CATHOLICISM.

The Rev. R. F. Clarke, S.J., makes a strenuous attack on Dr. Mivart, whose apology for doctrinal changes within the Church arises, he says, from his misconception of the true character of Catholic continuity. Dr. Mivart's idea of continuity is really only the delicate gradation of all changes in belief, and black may become white and white black if various shades of gray intervene and make the change imperceptible. But such a continuity as this is utterly alien to the Catholic Church, and Father Clarke declares flatly that black and white must remain black and white to the end, and that there must be no change even after a thousand years. But Father Clarke qualifies this dogma by admitting that changes, or "accretions to belief," have taken place in the popular mind; but these, he says, have no official sanction at all. He says:

"It is vital to the very existence of the Catholic Church that her continuity should be a continuity of dogma so complete and so all-embracing that not only should no possible change be admitted in a single word of the original definition, but that there should not be the very smallest departure from the meaning of each word of it as understood at the time when it was first defined. He who does not grasp this fact does not know what Catholic dogma means."

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING IN ENGLAND.

Mr. A. A. Campbell-Swinton, writing on "Electrical Engineering and the Municipalities," gives some reasons why England is so far behind in the utilization of electrical inventions. This is not due to any want of interest in the subject, for no country has produced more distinguished inventors in the domain of electricity. It is the consequence of legislation, for which both the British parties are responsible. Mr. Chamberlain's electric lighting act of 1882 for six years quenched all electrical enterprise, for under it the municipalities could buy out the private investor who bore all the risk of a new invention on terms which left him no margin of profit. Electric tramways have been similarly hampered by legislation, with the result that while America has now some 20,000 miles, there are only a few hundreds in England. The consequence of this is that now when the use of electricity for locomotion is increasing, nine-tenths of the plant must be imported from the United States. The whole of the electrical plant for the Central London Railway comes from America, and American manufacturers are now about to establish works in England to supply the new demand. All this is due to the opposition of the municipalities, which, being unable to undertake such enterprises, were jealous of private enterprise doing so.

MYSTICISM IN SCANDINAVIA.

Miss Hermione Ramsden, writing on "The New Mysticism in Scandinavia," gives some very interesting particulars as to recent literary developments in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. She describes and quotes the writings of Jacobsen, Jorgenson, Vilhelm Krag, and Selma Lagerlöf, the best of Sweden's writers. Mysticism in Scandinavia is a reaction against the problem novel and against realism.

A NEW USE FOR AIR GUNS.

Mr. R. B. Townshend has an article on "Some Stray Shots and a Moral," the main interest of which is that he recommends practice with the air gun as the preparatory school for the rifleman. For the essential thing in field-shooting is the practiced celerity of hand and eye that brings backsight, foresight, and object swiftly into line. By the use of the air gun this quality may be acquired without expense and without any of the inconveniences of rifle-shooting:

"Nine shots in the minute is rapid work, and I have seen ten shots fired in the time, and every shot hit the ring. You may be sure that any one who can do that would be an uncomfortably formidable opponent behind a Lee-Metford. I have known a boy who was trained thus, and he proved to be an excellent shot with the Lee-Metford from the start. The main recommendation of the air gun is that you can use it in your own back garden and that it is extremely cheap. With slugs at 1 shilling a thousand the cost is insignificant, while with Lee-Metford cartridges at £7, or even with

Morris tube ammunition at 25 shillings a thousand, the expense is very perceptibly greater. I prefer the No. 1 size air gun to the No. 3, as being in my experience more accurate and safer as well, the range being less. Most of the No. 1 size which I have seen, however, are too light, weighing only 5 or 5½ pounds. It is a great improvement to get a strip of sheet lead, about 8 inches by 1½ and weighing a couple of pounds. Bend this lengthways rather more than half round along the under side of the barrel in front of the breech, where the forehead should be, and fix it in place by a strong wrapping of waxed twine passing round it and over the top of the barrel. This gives an excellent grip for the left hand and makes the gun a reasonable weight. It is a good plan to get the gun with a 6-pound trigger pull, so as to be uniform with the government arm; but I also possess one with a light pull, 'the German release,' which is admirably smooth."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Lord Burghclere translates part of the second book of Virgil's *Georgics*. Miss G. L. Bell describes a stay in "The Alps of Dauphiné." Sir Wemyss Reid continues his survey of the month's newspapers.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for February has the inevitable article on "The Lessons of the War," with Mr. Auberon Herbert's "Tragedy of Errors" and a paper entitled "A Cry for Capacity," in which Mr. H. W. Massingham lays his finger on the real evils which, far more than military inefficiency, have led to the present breakdown of the imperial system. There are also two articles on the late Dr. Martineau, a paper on "Food-stuffs as Contraband of War," and a reply by Mr. Robert Buchanan to Sir Walter Besant.

THE SAMOAN SURRENDER.

Mr. R. Wardlaw-Thompson has an article on Samoa, which is devoted largely to the internal condition of the island, but is in essence a protest against the handing over of the island to Germany, not because of the surrender of imperial interests, but on the moral ground that the nations had not been consulted. Mr. Thompson says:

"Great Britain, for ends of her own, without consulting the wishes of the people, without giving them an opportunity of expressing their preference, without apparently any consideration of the strong ties of sympathy that have been created between them and herself by missionary laborers and the supporters of missionary societies, hands over the right to annex and govern the islands to another power. There may, it is true, be no reason to fear that the power in whose favor Great Britain withdraws will be likely to put any pressure upon the religious convictions of the people, nor is there reason to fear that its rule will be unjust and harsh. But this does not touch the point at issue. Is such transference of the subject peoples of the world by one power to another, altogether without regard to the wishes of the people themselves, quite in accord with Christian ideas of duty? Is such transference in such a case as Samoa justifiable from any point of view? The question is one which merits more than a passing thought, and which men who are accustomed to look at political as well as other questions from the point of

view of conscience will find rather a puzzling one for a clear and satisfactory answer."

THE NEGRO PROBLEM IN AMERICA.

Mr. Philip Alexander Bruce contributes an article on "The American Negro of To-day," which is little more than a wholesale denunciation of the blacks, and indeed almost a justification of lynching and the worst outrages and oppression practiced by the white inhabitants of the Southern States upon the negroes. Mr. Bruce is himself a Virginian, and he can see no good in the negro and no hope whatever for him in the future. The only negroes who have ever gained any distinction since the Civil War have, he says, had an intermixture of white blood in their veins. The present tendency, however, is toward the diminution of the mixed breed and the reversion of the mulatto to the aboriginal type; and unions between the two races are becoming rarer and rarer every day. The consequence is that the division every year becomes sharper. Mr. Bruce asserts that if several millions of blacks were introduced into England as laborers to-morrow, lynching would become a common phenomenon there in less than a year. He thinks that when the white population of the Southern States has increased largely the negroes will die out naturally. Nothing except emigration can save them from this, and there is little chance of their emigrating. Mr. Bruce thinks that there will be in South Africa a similar difficulty when the white population shall have reached several millions of men.

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are three other articles. Miss Ada Cone writes on "French Women in Industry;" Professor Conway, writing under the strange title of "The K-Folk, the Q-Folk, and the P-Folk," discusses some problems of philology; and Mr. Norman Hapgood has an article on Eugene Fromentin, the French painter and writer.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

THE *National Review* for February contains several interesting articles bearing directly upon questions of living interest.

Considering the evidence which is afforded by the other articles in the *National* as to the decadence of Protestant England, it is rather curious to find the Rev. Dr. Horton warning his countrymen to avoid all coquetting with the papists, lest England should share the fate of the dying nations:

"The pathetic figures of ruined Italy and ruined Spain and now France stricken to the heart—the Latin races, which is but another name for the nations under the see of Rome, decadent and frantic in their decay—rise up before us a warning."

Dr. Horton states the grounds of his fears as follows:

"1. The prodigious growth of conventual establishments in this country.

"2. The training of Protestant children in Catholic schools.

"3. The methods which Catholic ethics permit the propagandist to use in making proselytes, on the one hand presenting Catholicism under a guise of Protestant truth, and on the other hand extending Catholic indulgence to some of our worst sins.

"4. The apostolate of the press.

"5. The persecution maintained by the Catholic press."

MARS AS A WORLD.

Prof. R. A. Gregory writes a very interesting paper on what has recently been discovered as to the geography and conditions of life on Mars. He tells us all that is known about the canals, the oases, and possible forms of life. One Martian, he thinks, would be able to do as much work as fifty or sixty men. Speaking of the evidence of the existence of water as snow and ice, he says:

"Two months before the longest day in the southern hemisphere of Mars the polar cap was seen at Mr. Lowell's observatory as an unbroken waste of white more than 2,000 miles across. Hundreds of square miles of this Martian ice and snow disappeared daily, melted by the sun's rays, and as it melted a dark band appeared surrounding it on all sides. The obvious conclusion is that this dark blue ring was water produced by the melting of the polar snow, which interpretation is supported by the fact that as the white cap dwindled the band kept pace with it and persistently bordered the disappearing icy crown."

THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN LONDON.

In beginning a paper on the London housing problem Mr. H. Percy Harris says:

"In 1884 public attention was drawn to the evil conditions under which masses of the population were living by the publication in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of a series of articles entitled 'The Bitter Cry of Outcast London.' The result was the appointment of an exceptionally powerful royal commission to inquire into the housing of the working classes, and a report by that commission, which in its turn led to important results."

The point of Mr. Harris' paper is that the Conservative party is bound to do what it can to give effect to the housing act. He sums up his advice as follows:

"To administrators who hold that municipal bodies should loyally discharge duties imposed upon them by Parliament only one course seems open. It is to make a trial, at any rate, of the powers contained in Part III. of the housing act; to put to the test of experience the vexed question as to the possibility of combining the two systems of municipal and private enterprise; to see whether the municipality cannot do something to encourage private enterprise by leasing suitable sites to private companies or otherwise, and thus minimize the dangers which are feared if it comes forward as a mere competitor in the building trade."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. W. R. Lawson, writing on "The War Chest of the Boers," is interesting and important, for he tells us as the result of his examination of the subject that between financing, commandeering, taxing, fining, looting, confiscating, coining other people's gold, forced currency, and ultimate bankruptcy, the war chest of the Boers is not likely to run dry in a hurry.

THE WESTMINSTER REVIEW.

THE *Westminster Review* for February contains several articles of much vigor and more than ordinary pointedness.

THE FOREIGN FRIENDS OF ENGLAND.

Dr. Karl Blind, in a paper entitled "Exiles in England," protests indignantly against Professor Vambery's suggestion that because England offered shelter to exiles all martyrs of liberty should support her, even

if in their view England's best interests were injured by the mistaken and reprehensible action of men who happened to be at the helm. Dr. Blind says truly enough that there is a better England and a worse England, and when the worse one gets on top it is the duty of all exiles in England and honest men everywhere to defend the true English notions of liberty, humanity, and civilization against the government of the day. Dr. Blind says that the harm done to England by the present war will be truly incalculable. The watchful and friendly observer whose power of judgment is not restricted by insular prejudice experiences an uncomfortable presentiment as to the ultimate result.

THE DEVIL AND HIS ALIASES.

Mr. Oliphant Smeaton writes an interesting paper, the object of which is to prove that "the Hebrew 'Satan,' the Persian 'Ahriman,' the Hindoo 'Siva,' the Scandinavian 'Loki,' the Greek 'Eumenides,' and the Mexican 'Tlacatecolotl' are all modifications of the one basic principle."

The first conception of Satan was an incarnate principle personified in a being whose office was to inflict evil upon mankind, at first as a minister of God and later on his own account. The Mexican Satan has an unpronounceable name, which being translated means "he who revels in sin." It is a significant fact that many of the qualities afterward ascribed to the Mexican God of War were originally identified with the Mexican devil who "reveled in sin":

"Others might be named, such as the 'Taipo' of the Maories, the 'Looern' or 'Wiwonderer' of the Australian aborigines, the 'Gauna' of the Hottentots, the 'Erlík' of Altaian Shamanism, the 'Eblis' or 'Azazil' of Mohammedanism."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is an interesting account of an old treatise on sanitation and the improvement of health by the proper preparation of food, taken from a book published in the seventeenth century. Frances Heath Freshfield writes on discourtesy and rudeness as "an every-day crime." There is a paper on "Israel Before the Prophetic Reformation," and Mr. Ewen again writes in favor of free trade in gold.

CORNHILL MAGAZINE.

IN *Cornhill* for February there is an article, which we have quoted elsewhere, by Maj. Arthur Griffiths, describing the intelligence department of the British War Office.

Freiher von Elft describes a conversation "At a Free State Toll Bar" with a Dutch official, sent out a lecturer on physics to Pretoria, whom he addresses as member of a "Hollander clique," and who declares that he wishes to make war against England because it is a "national characteristic" of the Dutch to be jealous of the mistress of the seas. He ends his article by announcing that this member of the Hollander clique, which has "completed the ruin of the Transvaal," was severely wounded in battle and only escaped with "a stiff limb for life." As members of "cliques" are not as a rule particularly anxious to be wounded in battle, Mr. von Elft's attempt to give us a bad opinion of the Hollanders is not very successful.

Mr. Ernest Ensor writes on "The Humors of an Irish Country Town." Mr. A. Innes Shand describes the

political life of Doddington, "The Sycophant of the Last Century." "One of the Old School" writes on "Manners and Customs of Yesterday and To-day," and the Rev. H. C. Beeching on "Izaak Walton's Life of Donne." The rest of the number is made up of fiction.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE *Quarterly Review* has articles on "The War in South Africa" and on "The Years Before the Raid." We have quoted from these papers in our "Leading Articles of the Month."

BRITISH INTERESTS IN CHINA.

The article on British interests in China is somewhat out of date, as the reviewer speaks of the personality of the recently deposed Emperor as a factor governing the situation and of the Dowager Empress' faction as a declining element. The young Emperor, he says, might have removed the capital from Peking to Nanking:

"The transfer of the court to Nanking would present a series of advantages. It would remove the Emperor and his *entourage* from the immediate focus of disturbance. It would put an end to the faction conflicts that now divide the court, and would perhaps get rid of the Manchu element altogether. The reform party, on whom the Emperor relied before the *coup d'état*, were exclusively Chinese. The reactionaries of the Empress Dowager's party were mainly Manchus. The hope of the empire rests with the Chinese, or, as we might term them, the national party. An emperor freed from Manchu domination, reigning at Nanking and supported by an Anglo-Saxon union, would give the best promise of future stability and progress."

GOETHE AND THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

The article under this title is devoted to an inquiry as to the present status of Goethe as a great literary leader. The Carlylean ideal Goethe no longer exists:

"We must turn to Goethe himself, and the key to his work is his life. Much of his poetry may in itself seem dull or old-fashioned to us nowadays, much may be without inherent charm; but few are able to escape the spell of that wonderful, many-colored life, without question the most wonderful in the annals of literary men. To appreciate Goethe the poet, we must first study Goethe the man. As he himself once said to Eckermann, he is no poet for the mass. His works are written for individual men 'who have set up similar aims before them and are making their way along similar paths.' To study him may not make us better citizens or better patriots, but it will give us, to use an expression of his own, 'a certain inward freedom.' And, after all, 'inward freedom' is one of the most precious things that can be communicated by one mind to another."

OCEAN LINERS.

There is an interesting article on ocean liners, in which the development of transoceanic steam navigation is traced. In summing up, the reviewer expresses the opinion that we have got to the end of our resources as far as speed is concerned, until some new propulsive medium shall be discovered:

"Those who are sanguine respecting the probability of largely increased speeds fail to take account of the conditions which have facilitated the past increase in the rate of traveling. The reduction of speed by one-half has occupied sixty years, which have been charac-

terized by the most remarkable developments in the machinery of propulsion. Without such developments these great advances in speed would not have been possible. There is good reason to believe that the sources of energy at present available and the mechanical details of their transformation have now and for several years past been utilized to the utmost degree. Therefore unless some further radical improvement in the machinery of propulsion occur no important increase of speed can be obtained. The truth lies in a nutshell: energy cannot be created—it can only be transformed. To produce a given speed a corresponding amount of energy must be stored up and utilized in the vessel. Coal contains the latent force, while the machinery forms the agency of utilization. To gain a little more speed would involve storing much more coal; and this would mean a demand on space so disproportionate that there would not be enough room left for passengers and cargo to render a vessel a paying venture."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There are articles on "The Personality of R. L. Stevenson," on "The Genius of Rome," and on "The Sentiment of Thackeray." The writer of the article on "French Criminal Procedure" thinks that we should borrow from France the system of the *action publique*, which is a better guarantee for the safety of life and property than any private prosecution.

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE article on the war in South Africa in the new *Edinburgh* is briefly noticed elsewhere.

Perhaps the most notable article of the number is that in which the reviewer solemnly proclaims the advent of a new great poet in Mr. Stephen Phillips, whose play, "Paolo and Francesca," is lauded in language somewhat hyperbolic in its terms. After declaring that "there is among us a man who can stir in us the old thrill and rouse us to a sense of the tragic beauty, the haunting mystery of life," the reviewer proceeds to declare:

"Now there is published what is a new thing in the literature of England since the days of Shakespeare and his friends—a play written in close conformity with stage requirements, which is in every respect a poem. And it is on the strength of this work that we are bold not to predict, but claim for Mr. Phillips a place among the really great names in English poetry. There are no redundancies. The temptation to eloquence, even to lyrical poetry, is everywhere severely repressed, yet in every scene there is poetry, and in almost all there is great poetry. Since the 'Cenci' no drama at all approaching it in the essential qualities of passion and beauty has been written, and this is what the 'Cenci' is not, an acting play."

INDUSTRIAL ARBITRATION.

The first article is devoted to this subject. The reviewer advocates the establishment of a general board of conciliation. He says:

"It would seem that for influencing the course of great disputes, if any such should unhappily arise, the action of a State Department should be supplemented. And for this object there is a great deal to be said for the establishment of a central board representing the whole body of employers and employed who should act as a court of appeal, or of reference, from the judgments

of local conciliation boards. We are well aware that the difficulties in the way of the constitution of such a body are very great. But they are not necessarily insuperable. . . . Details may and do vary. But there are principles of universal effect. Local conciliation boards may well deal with details. A general board might exercise a powerful influence in the application of principles, and it would undoubtedly command more confidence than a State Department, however ably officered. . . . There already exists the nucleus of such a body on each side. With prudence and care there might be produced a valuable development of the Association of Employers and the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress."

THE VENEZUELAN ARBITRATION.

In the article on the arbitration settlement of the Venezuelan frontier the writer mentions the inconvenience of M. Martens having to attend the Hague conference while the court was sitting in Paris. On the whole, however, he is well pleased. He says:

"But whatever temporary disadvantages or avoidable errors may have been present, the arbitration as a whole is an interesting and instructive lesson, and the first great arbitration, unless the Bering Sea arbitration can claim similar praise, in which neither side has shown signs of resentment at the award and neither side impugned the reasons of the decision."

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS AND MAGAZINES.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

WITH the exception of the article on telegraphic cables in time of war, noticed elsewhere, the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January contains no article of outstanding importance; but as regards papers of average merit and average interest it exhibits no falling off from its customary high standard.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

There is a remarkable article by Count Goblet D'Alviella on proportional representation. It is to be feared that by the generality of the public this subject is regarded as somewhat dry, but it is made more "actual" now by the fact that the Belgian Chamber has just adopted, after prolonged discussion, a bill applying the principles of proportional representation to elections for the legislature. The question had proved fatal to two ministries, but the third achieved the success proverbially assigned to the third attempt. M. D'Alviella, though he traces the history of the movement in various countries, does not clearly indicate the provisions of the new Belgian law, but he explains in general terms the conclusion to which his inquiry has led him—namely, that proportional representation is no panacea, but that it does rectify the mechanism of parliamentary government, and it does explode the fiction, which obtains under the ordinary system, that the representatives who are elected are representative of the minority as well as of the majority. He claims for it that it guarantees the rights of the true majority, while at the same time it prevents the abuse of power by a minority exceptionally favored in the chances of voting. It may, perhaps, he admits, lean to the multiplication of political groups, but he considers that it weakens party spirit and tends to strengthen business politics and to weaken the element of mere contentiousness.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

There are articles on J. E. Millais and James Russell Lowell. Of the latter the reviewer says "his life was complete to a degree not frequently seen, and a knowledge of it will assist those on this side of the Atlantic to understand the growth during the last three-quarters of a century of the American people. It represents so many phases of national thought and feeling."

Mr. Trevelyan's "Age of Wycliff" is reviewed with appreciation in an article entitled "The Peasants' Rising of 1381." Mr. Trevelyan, says the reviewer, has given us a connected story of an intricate and important period which is both valuable and novel.

In the review of Mr. Kent's historical sketch of the English Radicals we are told that "the old Radicals were possessed by a strong faith in the principles they avowed, and by a spirit of optimism as to the blessed effects which their adoption would produce—They knew exactly what they wanted, and knowing it, they pursued it with unconquerable zeal."

Mr. Andrew Lang, or whoever it is that writes the article on "A Side Scene in Thought," gossips sympathetically about Dr. Dee, Simon Forman, and William Lily, with whom at the close of the seventeenth century magic as magic, with all its squalid miseries of sorcery and witchcraft, practically came to a close in England.

THE FRENCH COLONIAL ARMY.

In the second January number Colonel Lyautey deals with the French colonial army, or rather with the part which the French army plays in the colonies. After the preliminary process of conquest and occupation the French soldiers become important factors in the process of pacification, and are transformed, this article tells us, in an increasing measure into tillers of the soils, artisans, and teachers. Thus in Madagascar General Gallieni strove to utilize the particular aptitudes of each one of his troops to the best advantage. Obviously such non-military functions can be better fulfilled by an army of conscripts than by a more professional soldiery. Moreover, General Gallieni's system of dispersing his troops throughout the country gave them in many cases a strong link with the soil, and induced not a few to remain there. This development was fostered by a system of land concessions, and by the facilities given to the men to marry countrywomen of their own by the Société d'Emigration des Femmes, founded on the model of the United British Women's Emigration Society. As for the objection that this system demilitarizes the men, Colonel Lyautey declares that, on the contrary, it merely "decorporalizes" them, by which he means that it withdraws them from useless military routine without depriving them of their manly qualities, their initiative, their responsibility, and their judgment. Of course France does not employ her own sons alone in her colonies. Considerable use is made of native troops, notably in Tonquin and Madagascar. Generally speaking, the object is to obtain a colonial army, not simply an army in the colonies. A colonial army, says Colonel Lyautey, should be before all things self-governing, independent, and not liable to be absorbed into or modeled upon some other organism to which it is attached. It must, of course, also be provided with an extremely flexible or-

ganization, and its arrangements in general must be quickly capable of revision, and even of complete reform, in the light of practical experience. It is interesting to note, by the way, that Colonel Lyautey has unbounded admiration for the non-commissioned officer, whose infinitely various capacities remind us of his English brother so graphically portrayed by Mr. Kipling.

THE COMEDY OF ELECTIONS IN JAPAN.

M. Bellessort continues his amusing account of his travels in Japan with a paper on the comedy of elections in that surprising country. The electoral campaign which M. Bellessort witnessed was one which followed the dissolution of the Marquis Ito's government. It was explained to M. Bellessort that the frequency of general elections in Japan was intentional and designed as a kind of practice in parliamentarism, a sort of electoral gymnastics. The Japanese, in other words, desire to lose no time in the process of completely familiarizing themselves with Western parliamentary methods. Moreover, it has the advantage of permitting a Japanese elector to exercise the suffrage in his short life as frequently as a European country does in a century. It is a kind of syllabus of political education, which undertakes to turn out old and experienced citizens in fifteen or twenty lessons. Unfortunately the expense of frequent elections proves a considerable burden, though at the same time it softens the bellicose enthusiasm of the electors.

A well-known statesman said to M. Bellessort: "We are more ripe for the representative *régime* than we think, and our parliamentarism, which is still oligarchical, is only the intellectual transition from our old and brutal feudalism." Indeed, it would be surprising if the sudden transition from feudalism to parliamentary institutions did not bring with it some surprising and even comic results. Most conspicuous, perhaps, are the *soshis*, a regular profession of electoral bravos who do not stick at bounds, and yet are perfectly well recognized as a regular institution, to belong to which carries no disgrace.

Politics in Japan consist of the struggles of certain factions who have adopted the names of Western political parties just for the look of the thing without meaning anything by the names, for the Japanese voter does not vote for an idea, but for a man. He has the feudal loyalty of his clan. The great object of the factions is to capture the Emperor, who is, of course, a tower of strength to whichever side he lends his countenance. It must not be thought that these factions threaten the national security; they intrigue much more than they fight; and it is really owing to the *soshis* mostly that there is any excitement at all in a Japanese election. Among the curiosities of the election which M. Bellessort witnessed may be mentioned the case of an actor who had established a kind of *théâtre libre*. He contested the division of Tokyo, and though he commanded an extraordinary amount of feminine influence, he only obtained 45 votes.

In Japan there is an electoral qualification consisting of the payment of a fairly large sum in direct taxation, and it often happens that candidates with more ambition than money are obliged, in order to qualify themselves, to obtain adoption by parents of sufficient wealth. This adoption is done with Japanese thoroughness, and the new member of a family entirely abandons his old ties of blood and takes over the ancestors and the domestic worship of his new parents.

An amusing story is related of a distinguished Japanese economist who had arranged a suitable adoption, and the affair was about to be concluded when it was discovered that his prospective father was ten years younger than himself. The matter was referred to the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Justice, and the answer was that such an anomaly could on no account be permitted; so that the unfortunate economist had to continue his search for a parent of sufficient years as well as sufficient wealth.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among other articles may be mentioned a study of the writings of Hamlin Garland, by Th. Bentzon; a paper by the Duc de Broglie on Charles XII. of Sweden at the camp of Altranstadt; the continuation in two articles of M. Lenthéric's papers on the French sea-board and ports; the continuation of the Duc de Broglie's series on the neutralization of Belgium; and a learned paper on "Art and Science" by the Vicomte d'Athémar.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

AT the present moment the most interesting contributions to the *Nouvelle Revue* are those which deal with the British army and with the political outlook.

FRANCE AND THE TRANSVAAL.

The editors of the most militant of continental reviews give their new year place of honor to a long account of President Krüger, largely based on Mr. Poultney Bigelow's book, "The White Man's Africa." It need hardly be said that the whole article, which is well and clearly written, is of course full of sympathy for its subject. But owing to the fact that M. Jadot has not apparently had the opportunity of procuring any original sources of information, no passage can be said to be specially noteworthy.

Again, it is a pity that M. Delines, when attempting to give a familiar picture of the British army, contented himself with referring to a work, written by M. Vasilevski, which contains, as so often happens when a foreigner attempts to make a study of an essentially national product, a curious mixture of painstaking observations, coupled with astounding inaccuracies. These, as were to be expected, are most to be found in the account of the life led by the officers. Whatever may have been once the case, the British officer of to-day is by no means an epicurean sybarite, a "carpet knight and the correspondent on most of the more romantic divorce cases, perverted, capricious, and *blasé*, who inhabits a palace, has a negro for a groom, a French *chef* as cook, and an income which varies from tens to hundreds of thousands of pounds." Even Ouida never went to such extravagant lengths when describing her young guardsmen, and even she would be the first to admit that her heroes are rare exotic blossoms in no sense typical of their class!

More worthy of attention are the powerful and eloquent diatribes of Mme. Juliette Adam. In the second January number of the *Revue* she warns her Portuguese friends that they have all to fear from British perfidy, "for when Albion begins to talk about her right to do anything in the name of humanity everything may be feared from her selfish unscrupulousness." Madame Adam hints at some kind of *rapprochement* between England and Germany. "Well aware by previous experiences that William II. is always open to some kind

of deal, Mr. Chamberlain, in the name of humanity, will persuade the German Emperor, to please his grandmother, to commit an act of brigandage. . . . It may, however, be doubted whether the world will care to help Portugal to defend herself against these robbers."

A POLAR EXPLORATION.

Those to whom the subject of polar exploration always presents a certain fascination will find much to interest them in M. Rouvier's curious and instructive article on what may be called the side issues of the subject. He points out that while certain great explorers—English, American, German, Swedish—were making the world ring with their names, certain scientists were doing just as good work in another direction; and it is to them (such men as Weyprecht, Mohn, Buchan, and Nordenskiöld) that the happy man who finally reaches either pole will be largely indebted. Dr. Nansen, unlike many of his predecessors, was a scientist as well as an explorer; and he brought back from his last voyage carefully drawn-up reports of many discoveries made by him which will, at any rate, form a valuable base for those of his successors who wish to solve the polar enigma. M. Rouvier notes with satisfaction that the modern expedition tends to become more and more scientific in its objects.

THE CLERICAL PROBLEM IN FRANCE.

The dissolution of the Assumptionist Order gives a certain actuality to M. Loiseau's notes on clericalism. The writer has made a number of careful notes in the rural districts of France, and as a result he declares that although there does not seem to survive in the country districts any great religious feeling or enthusiasm, there is no bitterness of feeling against the parish priest; that, on the contrary, they are, when sensible and upright men, treated with more respect and good feeling than are even the municipal authorities. In the great towns there are violently anti-Christian centers, but these are carefully worked up and in no sense owing to anti-clericalism *per se*. Under a monarchy and under an empire the village priest was often regarded as belonging to the powers that be, and the more independent spirits revolted accordingly. But this is no longer the case in France, and in the majority of cases the country clergy are recruited from the peasantry and the *bourgeoisie*. For hundreds of years the clergy were, of course, a privileged class. Their privileges have now utterly disappeared, and perhaps this is why they are on the whole more beloved than they once were.

Among other articles is a curious historical survey by M. Neton of the relations of France and Prussia from 1791 to 1801.

OTHER FRENCH REVIEWS.

ON the subject of British policy in South Africa the *Journal des Economistes* says:

"If the imperialist policy in launching the forces of England in South African adventures strangely compromises the national prestige, so also industrial England, which formerly was in advance of all countries, is to-day menaced in all the markets of the world. Now, the imperialist policy has had the effect of weakening the English productive strength when it was necessary to increase it in order to sustain a rivalry that has become pressing. It is impossible not to be struck by the coincidence of the diminution of its foreign commerce and its territorial aggrandizement."

Very pertinent, but less striking because obvious, is another remark by M. de Molinari, the writer quoted above: "The campaign undertaken by the friends of peace against militarism has not had the success that was expected. . . . The Transvaal war has served as an epilogue to the Hague conference."

Everywhere the South African War is a theme for discussion, a text for moralizing, or a mark for jests. The *Revue Scientifique* makes its compliments to the English army in this fashion:

"By a strange anomaly a practical, utilitarian people, noted for not being satisfied with words, finds that it has an instrument of war without solidity. Its army, a survival from a remote past, has not known how to infuse itself with the spirit which has made the industry of the country so powerful, which has given it so much vitality. This army counted for nothing at all before 1900. For years and years it has been a negligible quantity."

THE RUSSIAN MAGAZINES.

A CONTRIBUTOR to the Russian *Voshod*, for December, under the title "The Literature of the Jewish Jargon in America," has given some translations from that strange dialect, which, as many of our readers know, consists of old German with an admixture of Polish, Russian, and Hebrew, sprinkled with cant terms from various trades and handicrafts. The *Revue des Revues* quotes a couple of passages. If the original is faithfully reflected in translation, Kobrine's style is certainly remarkable for its simplicity and strength. Here is a pleasant picture of tenement life in the city of New York. It is from Kobrine's "Why Berl Removed." The time is during the hot weather of summer:

"There comes a time when the roofs of the immense houses are transformed into sleeping-places. On the roof of a six-story house in Norfolk Street, already now for some nights there had slept fifteen tenants with their wives, children, and boarders. About 11 o'clock an infernal uproar is heard. Men and women hardly dressed run up there loaded with pillows, mattresses, and sheets. They take by assault the corners and install themselves comfortably, evading to some extent indiscreet glances, though practically it is impossible to dream of conveniences. The men for the most part figure in drawers and the women with arms and bosoms bare. The children skip about in shirts."

Kobrine's account of his efforts, failures, and sufferings in trying to get a living is hardly less realistic, and it shows that his becoming a writer was a sort of fatality:

"This furious work at night exhausted me so much that the third evening I lost consciousness, and our employer sent me away with a certificate of my complete incapacity for becoming a baker. . . . And in this manner through all my life I have endured misery, and I have suffered in every way, finding respite only in the moments when I was writing. The principal (if it was not the only) reason of my incapacity for physical work was my irresistible call to write. In my head there were stirring always thoughts which carried me far from the sewing machines, shirts, cigars, and even the little loaves. . . . While I was at work some subject always preoccupied me, and my arms fell. I was not able to drive away the scenes and pictures sketched in my brain. I worked as in a dream."

THE GERMAN MAGAZINES.

DEUTSCHE REVUE.

THE twenty-fifth birthday of this high-class magazine is duly celebrated by a preface from the pen of Richard Fleischer, in which the able editor looks back upon the stand the *Deutsche Revue* has always taken in questions of liberty, progress, and sober national aspirations. He outlines the future policy and chief aims of the *Deutsche Revue* and speaks modestly of his own share in its past and future work. Horst Kohl, the compiler of Bismarck's reminiscences, publishes some characteristic letters which Minister Count Frederic Eulenberg wrote to the great German statesman. In "New Education" G. Kaibel discusses the tendency to substitute a more practical, technical, and matter-of-fact schooling for the present classical college courses, and breaks a lance for the maintenance of poetry in the education of the German youth. The well-known German actor, Ludwig Barnay, speaks in his article on "Stage Virtuosi" in favor of the "star" system, and shows its advantages from his own experience as well as from that of many renowned actors. Most remarkable is Prof. Dr. Hegar's article, "The best Prevention of Diseases and Defects," in which he pleads earnestly for the passing of laws "forbidding marriage to all persons who are afflicted with any deformation, defect, disease, or infection to a degree that might lastingly injure their offspring."

DEUTSCHE RUNDSCHAU.

Of the interesting and various contents of the January number, the article by Philip Zorn on "The Results of the Hague Conference with Regard to International Law" deserves first mention. Not less valuable is Max Lenz' political review of the past century under the title of "The Great Powers." Gen. T. von Verdy du Vernois describes vividly the battle of Königgrätz (Sadowa) in his personal reminiscences "At the Headquarters of the II. (Silesian) Army, 1866." The poet-novelist, Paul Heyse, relates the beginning of his career with much charm under the title of "Max and Old Munich." "A Quarter of a Century's Music," by Eduard Hanslick, Vienna's and perhaps the whole world's most renowned musical critic, gives a valuable retrospective view of the subject.

PREUSSISCHE JAHRBÜCHER.

The sterling qualities which Hans Delbrück knows so well how to give to his magazine are as marked as usual in the January number. Johannes Butzbach discusses with the knowledge of an expert "Education and Science in the Higher Schools of Prussia," and Friedrich von der Leyen treats "The Indian Fairy Tale" with a thorough knowledge of ancient Buddhist literature. In "Christianity, Humanitarianism, and Freemasonry" an anonymous Freemason describes the origin and development of "the royal art" in Germany, and contradicts the attacks of two groups hostile to freemasonry: those who wish to put more stress upon Christian features and those "who look upon pure humanitarianism as the poisonous kernel of freemasonry." A real gem of psychological dissec-

tion and polished style is "The Problem of the Tragic," in which the author, Max Lorenz, follows the trend of "human fate with a sorrowful ending" in the world's literature from Aristotle and the Bible to Shakespeare, Schiller, and Richard Wagner.

DIE NEUE ZEIT.

Whether one does or does not agree with the socialistic tendencies of this organ devoted to and called the *New Time*, one cannot help being influenced by the optimistic hopes for the future with which its contributors seem to be imbued, and—what is decidedly more valuable—the reader is bound to gain information on various sociological questions from its pages which he could scarcely find elsewhere. Thus A. Winter's article, "The Zinc Industry of Upper Silesia," will be interesting in general for the details of labor and wages with which it deals. M. Beer, discussing the state of the labor question in "The United States in 1899," compares Kipling's "The White Man's Burden" with Markham's "The Man With the Hoe," and criticises American social conditions severely on account of the great strikes in Brooklyn, Cleveland, and Idaho.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE continued interest taken on the continent in the Anglo-Boer War is exemplified by two articles in the *Nuova Antologia* (January 16), the one a laudatory biographical sketch of Lord Roberts by Carlo Segrè, the other an article by the well-known Italian Deputy-General Luchino dal Verme, criticising the English conduct of the war with severity, though in a friendly spirit. From this latter article we have quoted in another department. Among literary articles in the same number may be mentioned a severely critical review of Ibsen's latest play by Professor de Lollis, and a long and laudatory notice of Stephen Phillips' "Paolo and Francesca." D'Annunzio gives a further installment of his "Laudi," the subject this time being Dante, but all attempt at consecutive thought seems to be sacrificed to the harmonious rhythm of the curious prophetic chant in which these "praises" are cast. Excellent portraits of E. de Amicis and of the composer, Puccini, complete an exceptionally strong number.

The *Rassegna Nazionale* is much occupied with the problem of religious and civil marriage. The Italian Government, having made it obligatory that the civil marriage should precede the religious ceremony, is much exercised to find that among the working classes the law is frequently neglected, with the result that the marriage returns are rendered inaccurate and a considerable number of children are born illegitimate. Various schemes to remedy this state of affairs are at present before the Italian Senate, and the old religious controversy of the sacrament of marriage has once again burst into flames.

Flegrea continues to be the most readable of the lighter Italian magazines. A powerful story by Matilde Serao is at present running through it, and the most recent number has a well-written article on the poetry of Verlaine.

THE NEW BOOKS.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Life of Abraham Lincoln. By Ida M. Tarbell. Two volumes, 8vo, pp. 426-459. New York: Doubleday & McClure Company. \$5.

Miss Tarbell's completed story of the life of Lincoln, portions of which have appeared in *McClure's Magazine* during the past five years, has at last been published in two illustrated volumes. The work in no way supplants the elaborate history written some years since by the Messrs. Nicolay and Hay, although in several particulars it supplements that work. Miss Tarbell's primary purpose was to present Lincoln the man, while the effort of Nicolay and Hay was to write the history of Lincoln's time. The amount of original Lincoln material in the country at large seems almost exhaustless. Since this work was undertaken, in 1894, many speeches, letters, and telegrams have been rediscovered. One of the most important of such contributions to Miss Tarbell's work is the report of what was long known as the "Lost Speech." It was unearthed by Mr. J. McCan Davis, of Springfield, Ill. An appendix to the second volume contains a great number of hitherto unpublished documents. In short, the material in these two volumes is so interesting and, in many respects, so valuable, that the absence of an index is the more regrettable.

Charles Francis Adams. By his Son, Charles Francis Adams. 16mo, pp. 426. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.

We can only very cursorily notice the appearance in the "American Statesmen" series of the life of the last member of the Adams family who was in conspicuous public position in this country. In the career of Charles Francis Adams interest, of course, centers in the period of his ministry at London during our Civil War. The importance of this book by his son chiefly lies in the fact that it is the first employment of Mr. Adams' papers, although thirteen years have passed since his death. His son states that Mr. Adams preserved all his correspondence, together with copies of his own letters, and for over fifty years, from the time he entered Harvard, he kept a diary, in which there is scarcely a break. Some time in the future a much larger work consisting of extracts from his diary, letters, and papers, will be published. Meanwhile, it is entirely safe to say that the light which is thrown on this very notable career by the present volume will tend to raise the already high estimate of the value of Mr. Adams' services to his country at a most critical juncture.

Henry Knox: A Soldier of the Revolution. By Noah Brooks. 12mo, pp. 286. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

In the "American Men of Energy" series Mr. Noah Brooks has written the story of Henry Knox, who was a major-general in the Continental Army, Washington's chief of artillery, first Secretary of War under the Constitution, and one of the founders of the Society of the Cincinnati, and yet is hardly known by name to the school children of our time. Men of the revolutionary period of far less relative importance than General Knox have in some way won a far more conspicuous place in our school histories. Almost a century has passed since the death of Knox, and it is high time that his character and career should be fittingly commemorated. Mr. Brooks has drawn his materials from original sources, and has employed them with the skill and judgment of the experienced writer. He has made a book that will be enjoyed by readers of all ages who are interested in the revolutionary period of our history.

Recollections: 1832 to 1886. By the Right Honorable Sir Algernon West, K.C.B. 12mo, pp. 442. New York: Harper & Brothers. \$3.

Sir Algernon West, who was for many years private secretary to Mr. Gladstone, has written a volume of recollections pertaining not only to his chief, but to many other of the prominent men and women of the century. These reminiscences are entertaining and throw light on many a page of England's more recent history. It should be said, however, that the author makes no claim to historical or chronological accuracy.

Charles Kingsley, and the Christian Social Movement. By Charles William Stubbs. 12mo, pp. 199. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. \$1.25.

With the progress of Christian socialism in this country there has come a revival of interest in the social movement in England represented by Maurice and Kingsley fifty years ago. In this little volume Dean Stubbs gives an excellent account of the English Christian Socialists of 1848 and their relations with the "Chartists." As Dean Stubbs very well says, "Facts are always more stimulating when told in relation to a personality," and this story of Kingsley and the work that he did in improving the lot of British workingmen is far more inspiring than any bare record of the social movement as such.

Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire. By James Wycliffe Headlam. 12mo, pp. 471. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

The latest life of Bismarck is a volume contributed to the "Heroes of the Nations" series, by James Wycliffe Headlam. The author states that the greater portion of his work was written before Bismarck's death; in completing the work, however, the author has had the advantage of the publication of both Bismarck's and Busch's "Memoirs."

Theodore Beza, the Counsellor of the French Reformation, 1519-1605. By Henry Martyn Baird. 12mo, pp. 376. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

All students of the history of French Protestantism are indebted to Prof. Henry M. Baird for his volume on Beza, who was indeed one of the "heroes of the Reformation," the head of the Reformed Church in French-speaking countries, and its recognized counsellor and leader, the friend of Calvin, and also the friend and adviser of Henry IV. Oddly enough this is the first biography of Beza to be made accessible to the general reader, either in English or in French. The volume is appropriately illustrated.

Alexander the Great: The Merging of East and West in Universal History. By Benjamin Ide Wheeler. 12mo, pp. 520. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

The magazine-reading public has already had a foretaste of President Wheeler's most interesting sketch of Alexander the Great in the papers which have recently appeared in the *Century Magazine*. President Wheeler, as is well known, unites in a remarkable degree the qualities of the scholarly investigator with those of the entertaining writer. He has pictured Alexander the Great more vividly, in some respects perhaps more powerfully, than that worthy has been pictured before in the English language. We are further indebted to President Wheeler for the exploitation, so to speak, of the most recent archeological discoveries bearing on this subject. The illustration of this volume is in line with that of its predecessors in the "Heroes of the Nations" series.

HISTORY.

History of the Scandinavians and Successful Scandinavians in the United States. Compiled and edited by O. N. Nelson. Two volumes in one, 8vo, pp. 518—280. Minneapolis, Minnesota: O. N. Nelson & Co. Sold by subscription.

The compiling of this history of the Scandinavians in America was a most worthy undertaking, which seems to have been admirably carried out. While the editor-in-chief of the work is Mr. O. N. Nelson, of Minneapolis, he has been assisted by a large and competent staff of associate editors, revisers, and contributors. A special effort has been made to preserve memorials of the various Scandinavian religious denominations in this country, and sketches are given of the different schools and colleges established by the American Scandinavians. In addition to the more general historical material, the work includes a great number of biographies of Scandinavians who have settled in the States of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. Thus a large amount of important material relating to the pioneers of these States, as well as to the second generation, has been preserved for posterity. A minor feature of the work, which may perhaps be overlooked by some readers, and yet which has a distinct value in itself, is a 30-page bibliography of Scandinavian-American historical literature of the nineteenth century. A glance at the portraits which appear in this double volume, including those of Governor Lind and United States Senator Nelson, impress one anew with a sense of the excellent qualities which Scandinavian immigration has imparted to the citizenship of our Middle West. It is hoped that the third volume in the series may cover Scandinavian settlement in Illinois.

The River War: An Historical Account of the Reconquest of the Soudan. By Winston Spencer Churchill. Two vols., 8vo, pp. 510—486. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$10.

In the two handsome volumes of Mr. Churchill's work, he gives an excellent history of the British conquest of the Soudan. Five opening chapters are occupied with a description of the geography of the Soudan country, and with a well co-ordinated, brief account of the progress of British arms on the Nile up to the disaster at Khartoum and the death of Gordon, which gave the Soudan country to the Mahdi and his devoted followers. Mr. Churchill spends little time in exploiting the miseries of the dervish rule in the Soudan. He proceeds to tell how the English began and carried out a systematic and irresistible movement to recapture the land from which the Mahdi had expelled them. After the tragedy of Khartoum, the outpost of the British army was Wadihalfa. The task that lay before the successive sirdars was very largely a work of engineering and military organization. When Kitchener began his stern advance in 1896, more than ten years had been spent in training the native Egyptian fellahs and the Soudanese negroes to effectually aid the British square in the coming attack on the Khalifa. Mr. Churchill pays a high tribute to the good qualities of these native troops. The fellahs in particular he describes as men of wonderful physical endurance, well regulated habits, and thorough loyalty. The Soudanese negroes made good soldiers, too. They were apt to get "rattled" when compared with the British regulars, but such a disadvantage was almost compensated for by the tremendous force of their onslaught which their hatred of the dervishes inspired.

Mr. Churchill's book, after the five opening chapters, tells of Lord Kitchener's advance in 1896, and much the greater part of it is devoted to that general's operations on the upper Nile, from April, 1896, to February, 1899, which period specifically covers what the author has called "The River War," and which finally was the reconquest of the Soudan. The first volume finishes the story to the battle of Atbara. The second volume is largely taken up with the terrific battle of Omdurman, which destroyed the dervish power forever.

Mr. Churchill has not only had the benefit of official

sources of information in the preparation of his records and of the many capital maps and battle plans with which the book is equipped, but he has also been able to give a graphic as well as an accurate account of General Kitchener's operations from the fact that he was attached to the 21st Lancers throughout the bloody but successful operations of '98. He was an eye-witness of the critical moments when the Khalifa was overwhelmed by the great force which had been preparing for a decade. Mr. Churchill acted as the correspondent of the Daily Mail, but in spite of General Kitchener's notable poor opinion of war correspondents, Mr. Churchill saw much of the sirdar and was evidently held in high regard by him.

The very excellence of Mr. Churchill's account of the military operations preceding the battle of Omdurman and of the battle itself make it hard reading. For if any one is yet unaware that war is what General Sherman said it was, this story will be highly convincing. Mr. Churchill's clear, brief, forcible sentences tell the truth as he saw it. Rarely has an account prepared so soon after the event described war under such circumstances with such independent and unflinching candor. The slaughter of 10,000 dervishes on the field of Omdurman, and the wounding of a greater number, are described in tragic detail.

The work, however, was done, and done thoroughly. The Khalifa's power ceased to exist with Khartoum; his death has come since this book was written. The English in Egypt will now turn their attention to the gigantic irrigation works on the Nile which will be necessary to bring the country to its former state of attractiveness and prosperity. The financing of these immense engineering enterprises and the probable saving of the White Nile, lost in the great marsh district through which a part of it flows, will be almost as huge a task for Lord Cromer as the destruction of the Arabs was for General Kitchener. Egypt has a Soudan deficit of nearly 400,000 pounds a year. She will be called on to pay 160,000 pounds a year for the Reservoirs, and in the year 1904 the first annual instalment for the great dam of the Nile will become due. Mr. Churchill in his forecast says that four years of difficulty will be followed by two years of actual crisis. That Lord Cromer will, provided he has a free hand, surmount these obstacles Mr. Churchill has no doubt.

How England Saved Europe: The Story of the Great War, 1793-1815. By W. H. Fitchett. Vols. II and III, 12mo, pp. 326—419. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2 each volume.

The second and third volumes of Mr. Fitchett's story of England's wars of a century ago are devoted, respectively, to "Nelson and the Struggle for the Sea," and "The War in the Peninsula." Each volume is well illustrated with portraits, maps, and plans, and the series as a whole offers a fresh and vigorous treatment of an important epoch in Britain's military and naval history.

The Destruction of Ancient Rome: A Sketch of the History of the Monuments. By Rodolfo Lanciani. 12mo, pp. 279. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$2.

In this volume Professor Lanciani briefly sums up the results of his researches in regard to the fate of the buildings and monuments of ancient Rome. It is announced that the present volume is a forerunner of a larger work, comprising several volumes, which will be published in Italian.

Lessons of the War with Spain, And Other Articles. By Alfred T. Mahan. 12mo, pp. 336. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$2.

In addition to Captain Mahan's review of the war with Spain, this volume contains recent magazine articles from his pen on "The Peace Conference and the Moral Aspect of War," "The Relations of the United States to Their New Dependencies," "Distinguishing Qualities of Ships of War," and "Current Fallacies Upon Naval Subjects." It is fortunate that Captain Mahan's critical study of the strategy of the war has been preserved in a form less ephemeral than that in which it originally appeared. The naval experts who can

write acceptably for popular reading are by no means numerous in this country. Captain Mahan's work in this direction has always commended itself to all classes, lay and professional. The considerations that he presents in this volume on "The Size and Qualities of Battleships," "Mutual Relations of Coast Defence and Navy," and "The Effect of Deficient Coast-Defence upon the Movements of the Navy," are worthy of the serious attention of members of Congress and of all who have to do with the administration of our naval affairs.

The Puritan Republic of the Massachusetts Bay in New England. By Daniel Wait Howe. 8vo, pp. 460. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company. \$3.50.

It may, indeed, be difficult to say anything new about Massachusetts history, but there is a certain advantage in having a compact presentation of the whole subject from a modern point of view, having regard to all that has been written for and against the Puritans and their institutions up to the present day. Mr. Howe, notwithstanding the embarrassment of riches in the literature of his subject, has succeeded in making such a presentation and one not lacking in independence of judgment.

The County Palatine of Durham: A Study in Constitutional History. (Harvard Historical Studies.) By Gaillard Thomas Lapsley, Ph.D. 8vo, pp. 391. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.

The historical student finds the county of Durham interesting because of the peculiar system under which that portion of England was governed throughout the Middle Ages and, in the restricted sense, up to the present century. The ruler of Durham during all that time was none other than its bishop, whose temporal principality was as real as any spiritual see. Dr. Lapsley's study, therefore, deals with ecclesiastical, as well as constitutional, history. The author has endeavored to refer scholars to the original authorities at every point.

SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

Brook Farm: Its Members, Scholars, and Visitors. By Lindsay Swift. 16mo, pp. 303. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.25.

No American communistic venture is half as well known to-day as Brook Farm, and yet perhaps none yielded smaller results as an experiment in social reform. Indeed, the charm of Brook Farm has always been a certain elusiveness. For, although many of its members and visitors were distinguished in the world of letters, few of them chose to reveal the community's secrets. The time seems to have come when a fairly complete account of Brook Farm may be made public. Mr. Lindsay Swift has devoted years to the accumulation of materials, and the present volume is the result of much painstaking research. Mr. Swift's sketches of Brook Farm personalities form not the least interesting portion of his work.

Studies in State Taxation, with Particular Reference to the Southern States. By Graduates and Students of the Johns Hopkins University. Edited by J. H. Hollander. 8vo, pp. 253. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.

One of the most recent illustrations of the fruitful work attempted by the Johns Hopkins University is a volume made up of five essays which had their origin in a series of informal class reports prepared by Johns Hopkins students in connection with a course of graduate instruction upon American commonwealth finance. Certain numbers of the class undertook to examine and describe the finance of a group of States, each investigator selecting his native State, or a State with whose economic life he was in a measure familiar. The States thus singled out for treatment were Maryland, North Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, and Kansas. Such studies should prove of great practical service to members of state legislatures or tax commissions.

A Ten Years' War: An Account of the Battle with the Slum in New York. By Jacob A. Riis. 12mo, pp. 267. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.

This story of a ten years' battle with New York slums is a song of victory, and it is dedicated "to the faint-hearted and those of little faith." No one so well as Mr. Riis knows what has been attempted and what has been accomplished in New York in the past ten years to better the conditions of tenement house existence. If he can be optimistic amid all the discouragements that this work has encountered, surely there must be good grounds for hope. His volume says that during ten years much has been gained in the way of improved tenements, sanitary lodging-houses, parks, and playgrounds. The fight is by no means over, but some of the enemy's strongholds have been taken.

The Effects of Recent Changes in Monetary Standards upon the Distribution of Wealth. By Francis S. Kinder. (American Economic Association: Economic Studies.) 8vo, pp. 90. New York: The Macmillan Company. Paper, 50 cents.

Mr. Kinder has made an interesting attempt to show the relations between changes in monetary standards and the distribution of wealth. He concludes, in the first place, that the change of monetary standards in 1873 was the one predominating cause of the fall of prices, and he further concludes that the succeeding years of falling prices were those of increased hardship for the working class as a whole.

It is announced that the "Economic Studies" published by the American Economic Association will be discontinued, and that a quarterly publication will be issued under the title of "Publications of the American Economic Association."

The Free-Trade Movement and Its Results. By G. Armitage-Smith. 12mo, pp. 244. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. \$1.25.

This little volume offers a convenient summary of the British free-trade movement over half a century ago.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Cyclopedia of Classified Dates. By Charles E. Little. Large 8vo, pp. 1454. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company. \$10.

This is a work of reference arranged on a distinctively new plan. It covers important historical events, classified, first, by countries and geographical location, second, by dates, and, finally, according to the nature of the event itself. This system of entries, however, would not suffice in itself for all purposes of reference, and it is supplemented by an alphabetic index of nearly 300 pages, in which all the events and names recorded in the body of the work are entered for a second time, with figures referring to page and column on which the main entry occurs. No brief description can convey any adequate idea of the comprehensiveness or range of such a work as this. Apparently no important group of facts in the world's history has been neglected. The magnitude of the editor's task may be faintly imagined when we reflect that he has had to review the known events of seventy centuries in the seventy-nine different countries of the world which may be said to have a recorded history. The prime advantage of the work, in our opinion, is the ready access that it gives to contemporaneous events in all parts of the world for any given period of time. The "Cyclopedia of Classified Dates" should have a place among the few really indispensable reference books on the shelves of the library and study.

Who's Who, 1900. 12mo, pp. xviii—1092. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.75.

In this annual biographical dictionary, now in its fifty-second year of issue, are included biographies of many persons who became prominent during 1899, as for example, the commanders in the South African war.

The Tribune Almanac: 1900. Henry Eckford Rhoades, Editor. 12mo, pp. 388. New York: The Tribune Association. Paper, 25 cents.

"The Tribune Almanac" for 1900 contains, in addition to the customary statistical information, brief historical sketches of the wars during 1899, the treaty with Spain, the Samoan troubles, the Alaskan boundary question, the Venezuelan arbitration, and other matters of public interest. The list of names of eminent officials, presidents of colleges, heads of patriotic societies, etc., are complete and invaluable for purposes of reference.

New York Charities Directory: 1900. 16mo, pp. 725. New York: Charity Organization Society. \$1.

The New York Charities Directory is a completé compendium of facts regarding all the societies and institutions working among the poor in New York City. The work is more than a mere catalogue of charitable institutions, and has been developed into a classified handbook of all the philanthropic activities of the Greater New York. The information which it furnishes is reliable, and in many instances can only be obtained independently with great difficulty and expense.

GENERAL LITERATURE.

The Hitherto Unidentified Contributions of W. M. Thackeray to *Punch*. By M. H. Spielmann. 8vo, pp. 350. New York: Harper & Brothers. \$1.75.

Several unsuccessful attempts have been made to select Thackeray's unsigned contributions to *Punch*. Even Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie's volume in her Biographical Edition, which accounts for some 380 contributions, fell nearly 100 short. Now Mr. M. H. Spielmann, author of the "History of *Punch*" has given the final and authoritative word on the subject in his volume. Mr. Spielmann has had the unimpeachable source of the editor's day book to identify these hitherto unplaced essays, verses and satirical pictures. The newly discovered contributions range in length from a couplet to an article of a page or more. Thackeray was expected to contribute about two columns to each number, and though he rarely came up to his full quatum, the aggregate of nine years' work in *Punch*'s columns, between 1843 and 1853, comes to some 336 columns. The quality of the work was of the most varied character, but certainly some of the quips and airy verses were in the very best vein of the author, and are fully up to the witticisms the world has laughed over in the standard editions of his works, especially in the case of the contributions on social, political and personal subjects. Thus, as it may readily be imagined, an author would gain in ease and spontaneity from the fact that he was writing anonymously. And though the work for *Punch* was at no time the most important part of Thackeray's writing, he was far from feeling it perfunctory; he said of the paper: "There never were before published in this world so many volumes which contained so much cause for laughing, so little for blushing." Mr. Spielmann's book is replete with illustrations, and is equipped with a most complete and workmanlike index and a bibliography for the years 1843 to 1848.

The World's Best Orations, From the Earliest Period to the Present Time. Edited by David J. Brewer. Vol. 2, Ben-Bur. 8vo, pp. 415. St. Louis: Ferd. P. Kaiser. New York: J. F. Taylor & Co. Buckram, \$3.50 per vol.

Among the orations included in the second volume of this great series are Burke's speech opening the bribery charges against Warren Hastings, 1788, Blaine's oration on Garfield, Thomas H. Benton's speech on the career of Andrew Jackson, Bismarck's plea for imperial armament, and William J. Bryan's famous "Cross of Gold" speech. The editors have certainly shown catholicity in their selections.

Of the Imitation of Christ. By Thomas à Kempis. Pp. 170. Maxims and Moral Reflections. By François, Duc de la Rochefoucauld. Pp. 53. Thoughts. By Blaise Pascal. Translated by C. Kegan Paul. Pp. 247. With Critical and Biographical Introductions by John Fletcher Hurst. 1 volume, 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Sold by subscription.

View of the State of Europe During the Middle Ages. By Henry Hallam. With a Critical and Biographical Introduction by George Lincoln Burr. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xxi-508-638. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Sold by subscription.

In a single volume of "The World's Great Books" the publishers present "Of the Imitation of Christ," by Thomas à Kempis, Rochefoucauld's "Maxims," and Pascal's "Thoughts." Critical and biographical introductions are furnished by Bishop Hurst.

Two volumes in the series are devoted to Hallam's "View of the State of Europe During the Middle Ages," with an introduction by Prof. George Lincoln Burr.

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE TEXT-BOOKS.

The Twelfth Book of Homer's Odyssey. Edited for the Use of Schools by Richard A. Minckwitz. 16mo, pp. xviii-89. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.

The Bacchæ of Euripides. The Text, and a Translation in English Verse. By Alexander Kerr. Square 12mo, pp. 127. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.05.

Homer's Iliad. Books XIX.-XXIV. Edited on the Basis of the Ameis-Hentze Edition by Edward Bull Clapp. 12mo, pp. 441. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.90.

Euripides Hippolytus. Edited, with Introduction, Notes and Critical Appendix, by J. E. Harry. 12mo, pp. xlv-175. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.50.

The Story of the Great Republic. By H. A. Guerber. 12mo, pp. 349. New York: American Book Company. 65 cents.

Topical Studies in American History. By John G. Allen. New Edition, Revised. 12mo, pp. xxxvi-93. New York: The Macmillan Company. 40 cents.

The Articles of Confederation. Re-arranged for Class Study by Frederick A. Cleveland. 12mo, pp. 16. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. Paper, 15 cents.

The Constitution of France. Re-arranged for Class Study by Frederick A. Cleveland. 12mo, pp. 29. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. Paper, 15 cents.

The Constitution of Switzerland. Re-arranged for Class Study by Frederick A. Cleveland. 12mo, pp. 37. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. Paper, 15 cents.

Our New Possessions: Cuba, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, Philippines. 8vo, pp. 32. New York: American Book Company. Paper, 10 cents.



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- Economic Science, Preconceptions of, T. Veblen, QJEcon.
- Edinburgh, Civic Improvement in, C. M. Robinson, MunA, December.
- Education:
- Academic Preparation for the Seminary, W. B. Greene, Jr., PRR, January.
- Agriculture, College Courses in, A. C. True, EdR.
- Art Education in the Public Schools, J. Hall, AE, January.
- Art Education, Relation of the Teacher to, Mildred E. Birdsall, AR, January.
- Cleveland Schools, E. L. Harris, Ed.
- College in the Twentieth Century, C. L. Smith, Atlant.
- College Education, Modern, Cos.
- College Entrance Requirements, H. S. White, EdR.
- Composition, English, J. S. Snoddy, Ed.
- Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, School, January.
- Decoration of Schools, J. P. Haney, MunA, December.
- Department, School, and the Weather, E. G. Dexter, EdR.
- Education and Crime, School, January.
- Education, Study of, B. A. Hinsdale, EdR.
- England, Educational Movements in—III., W. K. Hill, School, January.
- France, Educational Journals of, G. Compayré, EdR.
- France, Lycées of, E. L. Hardy, School, January.
- Geology in the Secondary Schools, R. S. Tarr, School, January.
- Girls, Early Education of, G. H. Martin, Ed.
- Greek, Preparatory, in the University, J. H. Harris, School, January.
- High School, Public, E. P. Seaver, EdR.
- Languages, Foreign, History of Teaching, B. D. Bogen, Ed.
- Military Drill and Discipline in Schools, J. C. Groff, Wern, January.
- National University? Do We Need a, W. F. Edwards, Gunt.
- Politician, Public-School, A. H. Nelson, EdR.
- Seminary Policy, Some Statistics About, W. S. Pratt, Hart.
- Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Proceedings of the, School.
- Southern Colleges, Needs of, J. L. M. Curry, Forum.
- Washington's University, C. W. Dabney, Forum.
- Electrical Display, A Curious, H. J. Shepstone, Str.
- Electrical Engineering and the Municipalities, A. A. C. Swinton, NineC.
- Electric Light, Bathing in, H. C. Fyfe, Pear.
- Emigration as a Social Remedy, R. P. Piolet, RefS, January 16.
- England: see Great Britain, Transvaal.
- England: Peasants' Rising in 1831, Edin, January.
- Episcopal Church in New York, W. Kirkus, Mun.
- Eros and Psyche, OC.
- Ethics: The Science of Duty—X—XI., J. J. Tigert, MRN.
- Evangelists, J. W. Chapman, Record.
- Evidence, Admissibility and Effect of, A. R. Watson, ALR.
- Expansion, But Not Imperialism, P. Carus, OC.
- Expansion of the American People—XVII—XX., E. E. Sparks, Chaut.
- Expansion, Territorial—II., N. P. Chipman, Over, January.
- Expansion: The Subjugation of Inferior Races, G. A. Richardson, Over, January.
- Explosives, Applications of, C. E. Munroe, APS.
- Factory Heating, San.
- Fiction, Modern—III., E. Ridley, AngA.
- Fishes, Blind, of North America, C. H. Eigenmann, APS.
- Fiske's "Through Nature to God," W. N. Guthrie, SR.
- Food of London, QR, January.
- Ford, Daniel Sharp, M. Manning, NatM.
- Ford, Paul Leicester, A. B. Maurice, Bkman.
- Forenoon and Afternoon, Unequal Length of, C. F. Dowd, APS.
- Foundry, Modern, J. Horner, CasM.
- France:
- Clericalism in France, C. Loiseau, Nou, January 15.
- Coast Line and Harbors of France, C. Lenthéric, RDM, January 15 and February 1.
- Consulate, French Army Under the, F. H. Tyrrell, USM.
- Criminal Procedure in France, QR, January.
- France and Prussia, A. H. Neton, Nou, January 15.
- Franco-Russian Alliance, End of a, G. Grabinski, RasN, January 1.
- Parties in the French Republic, J. Méline, RPP, January.
- Fromentin, Eugene, N. Hapgood, Contem.
- Furness, Horace Howard, A. H. Smyth, Lipp.
- Gems, Precious, T. C. Hepworth, PMM.
- Geography, Practical Exercises in, W. M. Davis, NatGM.
- Geology, Century of, J. Le Conte, APS.
- Germany:
- Emperor William II., Character of, E. I. Reed, Deut.
- England and America, German Feeling Toward, T. Mommensen, NAR.
- England, German Feeling Toward, NatR.
- French View of the German Empire, P. de Coubertin, AMRR.
- Labor, Organized, Campaign Against, M. Maurenbrecher, AJS, January.
- Godkin, E. L., Recollections of, Dial, January 16.
- Goethe and the Nineteenth Century, QR, January.
- Goethe and Victor Hugo: A Comparison, NatR.
- Gold Dredging in New Zealand, W. H. Cutten, Eng.
- Golf and Its Attractions, J. G. McPherson, Gent.
- Golf in 1899, H. S. C. Everard, Bad.
- Golf, Winter, in Southern Sunshine, J. D. Dunn, O.
- Government and Law in America, E. Freund, ALR.
- Grant, General, Administration of, G. S. Boutwell, McCl.
- Great Britain: see Transvaal.
- Army, British: The Black Watch, B. F. Robinson, Cass.
- Army, State of the—II., USM.
- Conscription? How Can We Avoid, W. T. Stead, RRL.
- Conservatives, Word to, Black.
- Contagious Diseases Acts (Women), West.
- Dutch, Sea-Fights with the, D. Hannay, AngS, December.
- England, Perilous Position of, W. T. Stead, AMRR.
- English and Dutch as Allies and Enemies, W. F. Lord, NIM.
- Exiles in England and the War in South Africa, K. Blind, West.
- German Feeling Toward England, NatR.
- Military Problems of Great Britain, J. H. Burton, USM.
- Militia, The, H. Maxwell, NineC.
- Political Affairs, F. W. Tugman, West.
- Poor Law Reform, QR, January.
- Predicament in South Africa, R. Ewen, West.
- Radicals, English, Edin, January.
- Tory Future, Black.
- Transvaal, England and the, Den B. Poortugael, Forum.
- War and Government, S. Wilkinson, NatR.
- War Office: Retrospect and a Forecast, A. Griffiths, Fort.
- War Office, Confusion in the, G. Chesney, NineC.
- Guns, Modern, Range of, W. J. Gordon, LeisH.
- Gypsy Moth in Massachusetts, F. Osgood, NEng.
- Hastings Bible Dictionary, Vol. II., AJT, January.
- Havana, Social Life of, T. B. Mott, Scrib.
- Health, National Board of, W. H. Allen, Annals, January.
- Health's Improvement, West.
- Hebrew Literature and Drama, S. Schell, Wern.
- Heine, Heinrich, E. W. Bowen, MRN.
- Heredity, Causes of, R. Sand, HumN, January.
- History, J. F. Rhodes, Atlant.
- Hittites of the Old Testament, W. H. Ward, Hom.
- Holland: English and Dutch as Allies and Enemies, W. F. Lord, NIM.
- Holland: Sea-Fights with England, D. Hannay, AngS, December.
- Hospital, London, American in the, Barbara Galpin, NatM.
- Howarth, Ellen Clementine, Jeannette L. Gilder, Crit.
- Hugo, Victor, Goethe and: A Comparison, NatR.
- Hutchinson, Thomas, C. H. Levermore, NEng.
- Hypnotic Suggestion, Value of, J. D. Quackenbos, Harp.
- Hypnotism, Educational and Therapeutic Value of, CAge.
- Ice-Breaking Steamer, To the Poles by, H. C. Fyfe, Str.
- Idaho and Montana Boundary Line, R. U. Goode, NatGM, January.
- Imperialism, Evolution Versus, J. C. Giffin, Arena.
- India: Frontier Policy and Lord Lytton's Administration, Edin, January.
- India in Transition, Mary A. Harriman, Over, January.
- Indians, Dakota, C. Thomassin, DH, Heft 4.
- Indian Territory, Need of Better Government in the, D. W. Yancey, Forum.
- India: Sikhs and Boers: A Parallel, S. Wheeler, AngS, December.
- India: The True Flavor of the Orient, J. Ralph, Harp.
- Innsbruck, "The Flower of the Tyrol," Mary F. Nixon, Cath.
- Insects, Singing, of Japan, Yei Theodora Ozaki, WWM.
- Iron Industry in the United States, F. W. Taussig, QJEcon.
- Irving, Sir Henry, F. Wayne, NatM.
- Israel Before the Prophetic Reformation, West.
- Italians in America, Future of, G. Macchiore, NA, January 16.

- Italy, Present Conditions in, E. Boyet, BU.
 Japan, Educational Problem in, I. H. Correll, MisR.
 Japan in the World's Politics, G. Droppers, IntM.
 Jefferson, Thomas, and the Dark Days of '14, O. S. Borne, NatM.
 Jesus: How He Gathered His First Disciples, E. I. Bosworth, Bib.
 Jesus of Nazareth as a Type, M. G. Bothwell, Mind.
 Jews: History of a Race and Expressional Power, T. Davidson; The Jew in Public Life, C. Fleischer; Voice of Israel, H. Berkowitz; Expression from Impression, G. Gottheil; Israel's Religious Genius, S. S. Wise; Poets of the Ghetto, D. Philipson; Jew in Dramatic Literature, M. H. Harris; Jew as an Artist, Katherine M. Cohen; Position of the Modern Jew, G. Deutsch; Jew in the World, Wern.
 Jews in Literature, Annie N. Meyer and M. B. Ellis, Bkman.
 Johnson's Transmitted Personality, A. Birrell, Crit.
 Journalism as a Basis for Literature, G. S. Lee, Atlant.
 Judaism in the Times of Jesus, Types of, J. S. Riggs, Bib.
 Jurisprudence, Criminal, Decline of, G. C. Speranza, APS.
 Kaskaskia: A Vanished Capital, A. G. Culver, Chaut.
 Kentucky, the Land of Feuds, W. Fawcett, Int.
 Kindergarten as an Educational Force, F. E. Cook, Kind.
 Kindergarten in Des Moines, Amelia Morton, Kind.
 Kindergarten Movement in Jamestown, New York, Cora E. Harris, Kind.
 Kindergarten: Séverité's Method and a Better, M. V. O'Shea, KindR.
 Kite Work of the Weather Bureau, H. C. Frankenfield, NatGM.
 Klondike Gold: Where It Is Valued, G. E. Adams, Cos.
 Klondike, Year's Progress in the, A. Heilprin, APS.
 Labor, Cheap, in the South, J. Dowd, Gunt.
 Labor Clauses in Public Contracts, B. Taylor, CasM.
 Labor Movement in Switzerland, C. Lindley, HumN, January.
 Labor Organizations in Germany, Campaign Against, M. Maurenbrecher, AJS, January.
 Lamb (Charles) Collection of Augustin Daly, Lida R. McCabe, BB.
 Landscapes, English and Australian, W. H. Fitchett, RRM, December.
 Lanier, Sidney, Struggles of, J. S. Bassett, MRN.
 Law, Biblical—II., Purchase of the Cave of Machpelah, D. W. Amram, GBag.
 Lawton, Gen. Henry W., O. O. Howard, AMRR; Home; P. MacQueen, NatM.
 Leibnitz, Ideal Philosophy of, E. M. Chesley, CAGE.
 Librarian, What It Means to Be a, H. Putnam, LHH.
 Libraries, Public, and the Masses, Cham.
 Library of Congress, H. Putnam, Atlant.
 Lincoln's (Abraham) Home in Springfield, Teresa B. O'Hare, Ros, January.
 Lincoln (Maine) Bar, R. K. Sewall, GBag.
 Literature, American, Classical Influences Upon, W. C. Lawton, Chaut.
 Literature, English, of the Nineteenth Century—II., L. E. Gates, Crit.
 Literature, Harmonic, J. H. Choate, Jr., NineC.
 Literature, The West and Certain Literary Discoveries, E. Hough, Cent.
 London, American in, C. Lanier, Int.
 London as Seen from St. Paul's, W. B. Northrop, LeisH.
 London, Military Defense of, A. H. Atteridge, Cass.
 London Housing Problem, H. P. Harris, NatR.
 London, Old, Street Names and Shop Signs of, Emma Endres, Cath.
 Longevity and Degeneration, W. R. Thayer, Forum.
 Lotteries, Luck, Chance, and Gambling Systems—II., J. H. Schooling, PMM.
 Lowell, James Russell, Edin, January.
 Lynch Law, Remedies for, SR, January.
 Macbeth and the Bible, L. G. Barbour, PQ, January.
 McGriffert, Dr., Historical Methods of, W. P. Dickson, PRR.
 Machine Shop Economics, O. Smith, CasM.
 Machine Shop Practice, Revolution in—V., H. Roland, Eng.
 Mahdism, Rise and Fall of, Dial, January 16.
 Mammoth, Truth About the, F. A. Lucas, McCl.
 Mapping the Continent, T. Waters, Home.
 Mardi-Gras Festivities, D. A. Willey, Int.
 Marriage and Divorce, J. D. Enright, Cath.
 Mars as a World, R. A. Gregory, NatR.
 Martineau, James, Recollections of, Frances P. Cobbe, Contem; P. H. Wickstead, Contem; E. E. Hale, Out.
 Master, Life of the—II., John the Baptist; The Baptism and Temptation of Jesus, J. Watson, McCl.
 Medical Expert Evidence, W. Bartlett, ALR.
 Mental Diseases, Prevention of, J. Mosel, San.
 Mental Health and Disease, J. W. Winkley, Mind.
 Merchant Navy, Our, F. W. Fitzpatrick, Int.
 Millais, John Everett, Edin, January.
 Millet, Jean François, Home of, C. Johnson, Out.
 Missions:
 Aoyama, Shosaburo—Japanese, Christian, Gentleman, R. E. Speer, MisR.
 China? What Can Christianity Do for, A. H. Smith, MisR.
 Chinese Turkestan, L. E. Högberg, MisR.
 Disciples of Christ, Jubilee Missionary Conventions of the, A. McLean, MisR.
 German Protestant Foreign Missions, A. Bernstorff, MisR.
 Greenland Mission, P. de Schweinitz, MisR.
 Jaffna College, Ceylon, J. L. Barton, MisH.
 Japanese Blow at Missions, E. Schiller, MisR.
 Livingstonia Mission in South Africa, G. Smith, Cham.
 Missionaries in Turkey, H. O. Dwight, MisH.
 Results from the Ecumenical Conference, MisR.
 Mississippi Valley, Future of the, A. B. Hart, Harp.
 Mitchell, Donald G., the Master of Edgewood, A. R. Kimball, Scrib.
 Montalembert and French Education, R. B.S. Blakelock, Dub.
 Montana—The Treasure State, J. H. Crooker, NEng.
 Moody, Dwight L.:
 "Coronation Day" of Mr. Moody, W. R. Moody, Record.
 Inner Life of Dwight L. Moody, C. M. Stuart, Chaut.
 Moody, Dwight L., G. P. Morris, AMRR; J. Stalker, Sun.
 Moody, Dwight L., the Evangelist, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
 Northfield Home of Mr. Moody, M. L. Osborne, NatM.
 Power of Mr. Moody's Ministry, L. Abbott, NAR.
 Mormon Breach of Faith, A. T. Schroeder, Arena.
 Mormon Power in America, J. M. Scanlan, Gunt.
 Mormons: Roberts, the Dreyfus of America, T. W. Curtis, Arena.
 Mormons, The, R. L. Hartt, Atlant; C. B. Spahr, Out.
 Mortality Among Infants, Prevention of, F. Strauss, RRP, January 15.
 Moulton, William F., G. G. Findlay, I.Q, January.
 Municipal Art, E. H. Blashfield, Muna, December.
 Municipal Art Conference in Baltimore, Muna, December.
 Municipal Memorials, J. Ståbben, Muna, December.
 Music, Metaphysics of, H. W. Stratton, Mind.
 Mysticism, New, in Scandinavia, Hermione Ramsden, NineC.
 Napoleon, Talks with, B. E. O'Meara, Cent.
 Natural Selection, Divine Action in, W. Seton, Cath.
 Nature, Catastrophes of, A. Sieveking, Cass.
 Nature-Worship a Pagan Sentiment, J. McSorley, Cath.
 Negro, American, of To-day, P. A. Bruce, Contem.
 "Neminism," President Jordan's, APS.
 Newspapers, French, A. Cohn, Bkman.
 Newspapers, The, W. Heid, NineC.
 New Testament Canon in the Syrian Church, J. A. Bewer, AJT, January.
 New York: Central Park in Winter, R. S. Spears, Mun.
 New York City Monuments, H. K. Bush-Brown, Muna, December.
 New York: Midwinter in, J. A. Riis, Cent.
 New York, Municipal Art in, Muna, December.
 Nile, Land of the, Florence M. Thomas, AE, January.
 Nile, Low, of 1899, S. W. Wallace, Black.
 North Carolina, Log Colleges in, PQ, January.
 North Pole, Race for the, W. Wellman, McCl.
 Novels of 1899, Some, W. E. Henley, NAR.
 Nurse, What It Means to Be a, YW.
 Ocean Grove, the Strange Holy City of New Jersey, C. S. Clark, WWM.
 Ocean Liners, QR, January.
 Ohio Country, Emigrating to the, G. T. Ridlon, Sr., NEng.
 Old Testament: Historical Books "the Word of God," G. L. Robinson, Record.
 Oliphant, Mrs. M. O. W., W. A. Guerry, SR, January.
 Ontario, Western, A. H. Flower, CAGE.
 Opera in America and Europe, H. T. Finck, IntM.
 Opera in the Nineteenth Century, W. S. B. Mathews, Mus.
 Organists, Two Famous, F. J. Crowest, Sun.
 Panama Canal, Actual Condition of the, C. Paine, Eng.
 "Paolo and Francesca," Mr. Stephen Philips', R. Garnett, AngS, December.
 Paris Exposition, Sculptors of the United States Pavilion at the, Georgia Fraser, BP.
 Paris Exposition, United States Government Building at the, C. de Kay, MA.
 Paris Revisited: Governmental Machine, R. Whiteing, Cent.
 Paris: Stroll Through the Louvre, J. J. Benjamin-Constant, Nou, January 15.
 Paris, Suburbs of, F. M. Warren, Chaut.
 Parks, City, Beatrix Jones, Muna, December.
 Parliamentary Speech, Changes in, A. Lyttelton, AngS, December.
 Passports in a Trip Around the World, J. F. Fraser, Cass.
 Pastor's Relations to God, S. M. Smith, PQ, January.
 Patagonia, Southern, Geographic Features of, J. B. Hatcher, NatGM.
 Pater, Walter, A. D. Malley, Cath.
 Paul, Second Imprisonment of, J. Macpherson, AJT.
 Patterson, Elizabeth, J. de Noyvion, RRP, February 1.
 Pensions, Old-Age, Plea for, M. Davitt, Forum.
 Pensions, Old-Age, Why I Oppose, W. H. Lecky, Forum.
 People's Party, M. Butler, Forum.
 Personality, Loss of, Ethel D. Puffer, Atlant.
 Philanthropy, Science in, C. R. Henderson, Atlant.
 Philippine Islands and Their Environment, J. Barrett, NatGM, January.

Philippines and the Oriental Problem, N. P. Chipman, Over, January.
 Philippines, Our Rule in the, T. M. Anderson, NAR.
 Phillips, Stephen, Poetry of, Edin, January.
 Photography:
 Daguerreotype, Teachings of the, J. Waterhouse, WPM, January.
 Dark-Room Light, Safe, WPM, January.
 Hand-Camera, Choice of a, WPM, January.
 Hands in Portraiture, F. M. Sutcliffe, APB.
 History, Early, of Photography, PhoT.
 Horses, Photographing, F. W. Cole, APB.
 Hypo, Removal of, After Fixing, C. Jones, WPM, January.
 Lantern Slide Making for Beginners, PhoT.
 Mounts and Mounting, WPM, January.
 New York Camera Club, S. Hartmann, PhoT.
 Oxy-Magnesium Lamp, New Form of, for Portraiture, F. C. Lambert, APB.
 Pin-Hole Photography, Practical, O. I. Yellott, PhoT.
 Portraiture, Old Versus New Methods in, WPM.
 Reproduction as a Means of Improving Negatives, J. A. Hedges, WPM, January.
 Spotting Negatives, WPM, January.
 Pingree, Governor, and His Reforms, W. P. Belden, ALR.
 Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, E. White, BankNY, January.
 Plague, The, A. Weichfelbaum, Deut; E. Duclaux, RPar, February 1.
 Poetry of the American Plantations—II., W. P. Trent, SR.
 Poets of Young Germany, A. von Ende, Crit.
 Poland, Future of, A. Leroy-Beaulieu, RRP, January 15.
 Population, Movement of, J. Cummings, QJEcon.
 Preaching and the Preacher—II., H. Johnson, Hom.
 Preacher With or Without the Manuscript, R. Wilson, MRN.
 Precipice-Riding in the Continental Armies, B. Waters, Str.
 Prophetic Teaching, Origin of the, L. B. Paton, Hart.
 Printing, Electrical Inkless, A. Sanderson, Cham.
 Psychological Research: "A Side Scene of Thought," Edin.
 Public Bath at Brookline, J. A. Stewart, AJS, January.
 Publishers, Some Pioneer New York, F. Dredd, Bkman.
 Quaritch, Bernard, Bkman.
 Race-Preservation Dogma, A. Llano, AJS, January.
 Radicalism—East and West, A. Watkins, Arena.
 Railroad and the People, T. Dreiser, Harp.
 Railroads, Policing the, J. Flynt, Mun.
 Railway Discriminations and Industrial Combinations, C. A. Prouty, Annals, January.
 Railway Mail Service, R. C. Jackson, FrL.
 Ranch Life in America, Art, January.
 Religion in Greek Literature, J. Iverach, LQ, January.
 Religion, Science of, Recent Work in the, C. H. Toy, IntM.
 Respiration and the Vocal Organs, W. Shakespeare, Wern.
 Revival, Conditions of, J. B. Shaw, Hom.
 Revolution, Traditions of the, E. E. Hale, AMonM.
 Rhode Island, Old Plantation Life in, G. C. Mason, NEng.
 Rhodes, Cecil: The King and His Country, A. Sangree, Ains.
 Richmond, Fall of, Ina C. Emery, NatM.
 Roads, Roman and French, C. Julian, RPar, February 1.
 Roman Catholic Church, Danger from the, R. F. Horton, NatR.
 Roman Catholic Jubilee Indulgence, H. Thurston, Dub.
 Rome, Ancient, in 1900, Edin, January.
 Rome, Genius of, QR, January.
 Rome, Italy, Helen G. Smith, Ros, January.
 Rostand, Edmond, E. Tissot, RRP, January 15.
 Roycrofters, Fra Elbertus and the, B. O. Flower, CAge.
 Ruskin, John, Dial, February 1.
 Ruskin Hall Movement, L. T. Dodd and J. A. Dale, Fort.
 Russia and Morocco, Fort.
 Russia in Central Asia, A. R. Colquhoun, Harp.
 Sable Island, G. Kobbé, Ains.
 Sailing Alone Around the World, J. Slocum, Cent.
 Sailor Princes of To-day, F. Morris, Mun.
 St. Cyr in the Present, Madame de Coursen, Dub, January.
 St. Louis, Public Art in, J. L. Mauran, MunA, December.
 Salvation Army, S. L. Brengle, Record.
 Samoa, R. W. Thompson, Contem.
 Science, Man of, in Practical Affairs, F. W. Clarke, APS.
 Science, South Sea Bubbles in, J. Trowbridge, APS.
 Science, To-day's, in Europe, H. S. Williams, Harp.
 Scripture, God-Inspired, B. B. Warfield, PRR, January.
 Scriptures, Unerring Witness to, H. Osgood, PRR, January.
 Sea Fights, Great, and the Work of the Yankee Privateers, C. T. Brady, BB.
 Shakespeare and Development of General Culture, CAge.
 Shakespeare, Marlowe and, Joint Authorship of, J. T. Foard, Gent.
 Shakespeare, William—II., Birth and Breeding, H. W. Mabie, Out.
 Shelley, Percy Bysshe, and Mary Shelley, AngS, December.
 Sick-Room, Disinfection and Prevention in the, C. Harrington, San.
 Signaling in the British Navy and Army, H. C. Fyfe, Str.
 Singapore, White Man's Rule in, P. Bigelow, Harp.
 Ski Running—A New Sport, H. H. Lewis, Mun.
 Slums, Through the, Mrs. Ballington Booth, LHJ.
 Smith, Oliver, Charities of, C. S. Walker, NEng.

Social Control—XIV., Education, E. A. Ross, AJS, January.
 Sociology, Scope of, A. W. Small, AJS, January.
 Song, Popular: What Gives It Its Vogue? H. T. Finck, Lipp.
 South America, Across, in a Warship, E. H. Coleman, Ains.
 South, Through Inland Waters to the, C. G. Davis, O.
 Sovereignty, Sociological View of—IX., J. R. Commons, AJS, January.
 Spain: Her Financial and Political Condition, M. y Priedergast, AngS, December.
 Stage, American, Noted Young Men of, J. W. Herbert, Cos.
 Steel, Structural, Manufacture of, F. H. Kindl, CasM.
 Stevenson, Robert Louis, Personality of, QR, January.
 Stevenson (Robert Louis), The Real, C. Kernahan, LQ.
 Stillman, W. J., Autobiography of—II., Atlant.
 Stockton, Frank R., and All His Works, W. D. Howells, BB.
 Stockton, Frank, New Home of, C. Howard, LHJ.
 Stonehedge, England, NIM.
 Stones, Precious, Romance of, NIM.
 Story, Short, Future of the, E. C. Black, IntM.
 Strathay, Scotland, H. Macmillan, AJ.
 Strikes, Trusts, Boycotts, and Black-Lists F. D. Tandy, Arena.
 Telegraphy, Wireless, Development of, P. B. Delaney, Eng.
 Temperance: Gospel Versus Drink, H. Macfarlane, Sun.
 Temperance: Licensing Commission in England, G. A. Ben-
 netts, LQ, January; A. West, NineC.
 Temperance Progress in Great Britain, F. W. Farrar, Hom.
 Thackeray—a Protest, Maude Frank, BB.
 Thackeray, William Makepeace, Sentiment of, QR, January.
 Theater and Its People—V., F. Fyles, LHJ.
 Theological Teaching and the Spiritual Life, W. Caven, PQ.
 Tibetans, Among the, W. J. Reid, Cos.
 Trade, Credit and, in the United States and Canada During
 1899, BankL.
 Tramway Development in Great Britain, J. C. Robinson, CMM.
 Transvaal: see Great Britain.
 American Opinion on the War, H. T. Peck, Bkman.
 Boers, Fighting, H. Bolce, FrL.
 Boers, War Chest of the, W. R. Lawson, NatR.
 British Army Corps at the Front, A. Griffiths, Pear.
 Canadian Contingent, F. G. Stone, USM.
 Causes of the British Disasters, USM.
 Causes of the War, E. Dicey, PMM.
 Church, Dutch, and the Boers, W. Greswell, Fort.
 Colenso, Artillery at, C. H. Wilson, USM.
 Dutch in South Africa, H. Cust, NAR.
 English and Boers in South Africa, J. Villarais, BU.
 First Stage of the Boer War, H. J. Whigham, Scrib.
 Legal and Political Aspect of the South African Conflict,
 F. A. Cleveland, Annals, January.
 Lessons of the War, Contem.
 Magersfontein, Fight at, J. Barnes, Out.
 Military Problems in South Africa, O. O. Howard, NAR.
 Military Situation in South Africa, J. F. Owen, NAR.
 Neutrals and the War, J. Macdonnell, NineC.
 Personal Rule in South Africa, Danger of, M. White, NAR.
 Political Prospects in South Africa, Black.
 Red Cross on the Battlefield, M. Tindal, Pear.
 Relation of England to the Transvaal, Den R. Poortugael,
 Forum.
 Reverse, Causes of, NatR.
 Roberts, Field Marshal Lord, AMRR; Can.
 Sikhs and Boers: A Parallel, S. Wheeler, AngS, Decem-
 ber.
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|---------|---|---------|--|---------|--|
| Ains. | Ainslee's Magazine, N. Y. | Dem. | Demorest's Family Magazine, N. Y. | NEng. | New England Magazine, Boston. |
| ACQR. | American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | DH. | Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg. | NIM. | New Illustrated Magazine, London. |
| AHR. | American Historical Review, N. Y. | Deut. | Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | NW. | New World, Boston. |
| AJS. | American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | Dial. | Dial, Chicago. | NineC. | Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AJT. | American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | Dub. | Dublin Review, Dublin. | NAR. | North American Review, N. Y. |
| ALR. | American Law Review, St. Louis. | Edin. | Edinburgh Review, London. | Nou. | Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| AMonM. | American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | Ed. | Education, Boston. | NA. | Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| AMRR. | American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | EdR. | Educational Review, N. Y. | OC. | Open Court, Chicago. |
| ANat. | American Naturalist, Boston. | Eng. | Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | O. | Outing, N. Y. |
| AngA. | Anglo-American Magazine, N. Y. | EM. | España Moderna, Madrid. | Out. | Outlook, N. Y. |
| AngS. | Anglo-Saxon Review, N. Y. | Fort. | Fortnightly Review, London. | Over. | Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| Annals. | Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | Forum. | Forum, N. Y. | PMM. | Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| APB. | Anthony's Photographic Bulletin, N. Y. | FrL. | Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | Pear. | Pearson's Magazine, N. Y. |
| APS. | Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y. | Gent. | Gentleman's Magazine, London. | Phil. | Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| Arch. | Architectural Record, N. Y. | GBag. | Green Bag, Boston. | PhoT. | Photographic Times, N. Y. |
| Arena. | Arena, N. Y. | Gunt. | Gunt's Magazine, N. Y. | PL. | Poet-Lore, Boston. |
| AA. | Art Amateur, N. Y. | Harp. | Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | PSQ. | Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| AE. | Art Education, N. Y. | Hart. | Hartford Seminary Record, Hartford, Conn. | PRR. | Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila. |
| AL. | Art Interchange, N. Y. | Home. | Home Magazine, N. Y. | PQ. | Presbyterian Quarterly, Charlotte, N. C. |
| AJ. | Art Journal, London. | Hom. | Homiletic Review, N. Y. | QJEcon. | Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| Art. | Artist, London. | HumN. | Humanité Nouvelle, Paris. | QR. | Quarterly Review, London. |
| Atlant. | Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | Int. | International, Chicago. | RasN. | Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| Bad. | Badminton, London. | IJE. | International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | Record. | Record of Christian Work, East Northfield, Mass. |
| BankL. | Bankers' Magazine, London. | JMSI. | Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | RefS. | Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| BankNY. | Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | JPEcon. | Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | RR. | Review of Reviews, London. |
| Bib. | Biblical World, Chicago. | Kind. | Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | RRM. | Review of Reviews, Melbourne. |
| BSac. | Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | KindR. | Kindergarten Review, Springfield, Mass. | RDM. | Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| BU. | Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | LHJ. | Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | RDP. | Revue du Droit Public, Paris. |
| Black. | Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | LeisH. | Leisure Hour, London. | RGen. | Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| BTJ. | Board of Trade Journal, London. | Lipp. | Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | RPar. | Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| BB. | Book Buyer, N. Y. | LQ. | London Quarterly Review, London. | RPP. | Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| Bkman. | Bookman, N. Y. | Long. | Longman's Magazine, London. | RRP. | Revue des Revues, Paris. |
| BP. | Brush and Pencil, Chicago. | Luth. | Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | RSoc. | Revue Socialiste, Paris. |
| Can. | Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | McCl. | McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | RPL. | Rivista Politica e Letteraria, Rome. |
| Cass. | Cassell's Magazine, London. | Mac. | Macmillan's Magazine, London. | Ros. | Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| CasM. | Cassier's Magazine, N. Y. | MA. | Magazine of Art, London. | San. | Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Cath. | Catholic World, N. Y. | MRN. | Methodist Review, Nashville. | School. | School Review, Chicago. |
| Cent. | Century Magazine, N. Y. | MRNY. | Methodist Review, N. Y. | Scrib. | Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Cham. | Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh. | Mind. | Mind, N. Y. | SelfC. | Self Culture, Akron, Ohio. |
| Char. | Charities Review, N. Y. | MisH. | Missionary Herald, Boston. | SR. | Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn. |
| Chaut. | Chautauquan, Cleveland, O. | Mon. | Monist, Chicago. | Str. | Strand Magazine, London. |
| CAge. | Coming Age, Boston. | MunA. | Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | Sun. | Sunday Magazine, London. |
| Cons. | Conservative Review, Washington. | Mun. | Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | Temp. | Temple Bar, London. |
| Contem. | Contemporary Review, London. | Mus. | Music, Chicago. | USM. | United Service Magazine, London. |
| Corn. | Cornhill, London. | NatGM. | National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | West. | Westminster Review, London. |
| Cos. | Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | NatM. | National Magazine, Boston. | Wern. | Werner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Crit. | Critic, N. Y. | NatR. | National Review, London. | WWM. | Wide World Magazine, London. |
| | | NC. | New-Church Review, Boston. | WPM. | Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| | | | | Yale. | Yale Review, New Haven. |
| | | | | YM. | Young Man, London. |
| | | | | YW. | Young Woman, London. |